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ABSTRACT

This collection of essays gives an overview of recent trends and developments in second language instruction, particularly in the context of British education. Contents include: "From Complacency to Conviction: Thirty Years of Language Teaching Theory, Practice, and Policy" (David Phillips); "Lessons from the Graded Objectives Movement" (Ann Miller); "GSCE: Back to the Future in a School Department" (Malcolm Hope); "Communicative Strategies and Techniques" (Liz Roselman); "The Four Skills" (Barry Jones); "No Call for CALL? Twentieth Century Technology for Nineteenth Century Language Teaching Methodology" (Eric Brown); "Pre-Vocational Courses from 14 Onwards" (Isabel de Sudea); "Language Awareness" (Richard Aplin); "Community Languages" (Marion Molteno, Ralph Russell); "New Developments at 'A' Level" (Alan Moys); "Future Reforms at Sixth Form Level" (Antony Peck); "Pre-Vocational and Non-Specialist Language Courses Post 16" (Richard Aplin, Anne Stevens); and "From School to Higher Education" (Gareth Thomas). Appended materials include "Patterns of Change in GCE 'A' Level Examinations" (Alan Moys), an analysis of recent or proposed changes in one examination series, especially as they reflect syllabus changes; and "Non Specialist and 'As' Courses" (Richard Aplin, Anne Stevens), an information paper about language examinations for non-language-specialists. (MSE)

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LANGUAGES IN SCHOOLS

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EDITED BY
DAVID PHILLIPS

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LANGUAGES IN SCHOOLS FROM COMPLACENCY TO CONVICTION

Edited by David Phillips



CENTRE FOR INFORMATION ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND
RESEARCH

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INTRODUCTION

David Phillips

The 1980s have proved to be a time of much important development in foreign language teaching. From the uncertainties of the 70s has grown a new spirit which has successfully challenged many of the assumptions that had locked language teaching into a complacency about aims and methods that had caused many of its problems. A checklist of developments that have helped to bring about that new spirit would include:

- the graded objectives movement (GOML); a radical reappraisal of syllabus design and aims which has done much to provide realistic courses for the majority of learners;
- communicative language teaching; an approach to the subject which has helped to liberate it from the grammar-translation methods that had stifled so much initiative in the past;
- GCSE; a new style of examining, not without its critics, which has built on the strengths of communicative teaching and removed many of the constraints on classroom practice that a lot of 'O' level and CSE syllabuses imposed;
- a wealth of resource materials in the major languages; publishers and radio and television producers have provided a vast range of teaching materials on which linguists can draw;
- languages at work; the growing realisation that languages are needed for special purposes at all levels, and the associated development of new syllabuses and schemes to capitalise on language use;
- alternative syllabuses at 'A' level, which have allowed students to opt for a 16-19 course which is not of necessity literature-based.

This list could be added to, but as it stands it indicates the scale of progress that has been made during the decade or so following the stage of depression through which foreign language teaching passed in the 1970s.

The present book, consisting of contributions by specialists in language teaching from various sectors, all of them practitioners as well as theorists, attempts to provide an update of developments. It succeeds, but in no way

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attempts to replace, David Smith's admirable *Teaching languages in today's schools*, published by CILT in 1981. That most useful compilation had a strong practical content, and it is hoped that that feature will be evident too in this successor volume.

The first section outlines the developments in foreign language teaching theory, practice and policy over the last thirty years, and sets the scene for the papers which follow. It is remarkable how much has been written to further the debate about language teaching in our schools during the last decade or so. The DES and HMI have in particular been responsible for a large number of publications which together constitute a most thorough investigation of the issues, whether or not the findings and recommendations meet with favour. Much, too, has been done on the theoretical and practical sides by those unconnected with Elizabeth House.

The section on communicative language teaching contains contributions by Malcolm Hope and Ann Miller on GOML and GCSE, in which one school provides an important example of how the new syllabuses can find expression in the successful practice of an enlightened languages department. The authors are not, however, uncritical of GCSE, and they rightly point out the failure to build on the strengths of GOML, particularly in its cumulative approach to assessment. GCSE in modern languages requires (at the time of writing) no course work or continuous assessment, both of which would be facilitated by GOML syllabuses. Liz Roselman contributes a piece on strategies and techniques, based on her own successful classroom practice. Barry Jones subjects the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing to close scrutiny and highlights their essentially interactive nature. The tendency, reinforced by examination syllabuses, to look upon them as discrete skills at least served the purpose of throwing into doubt the traditional sequence of priority of **writing - reading - speaking - listening** (arguably the precise reverse of the most appropriate and useful sequence of those skills). Barry Jones's contribution outlines a wide range of examples of potential activities to give learners proper practice in the four skills individually and in combination.

Advances in technology have proceeded apace, despite some scepticism that computers would offer only a re-run of the disappointing experiences linguists had with the language laboratory. Eric Brown demonstrates, however, that computer software in foreign languages is now out of its infancy and well advanced into a healthy childhood. We must now monitor its progress with care, lest its adolescence prove delinquent. The technology covered in Eric Brown's paper also includes satellite television and word processing, developments which open up a myriad of possibilities for the teacher of foreign languages, and which can further enhance the techniques of communicative teaching.

Isabel de Sudea's contribution provides an overview of TVEL provision and makes the link between the traditional age groupings of 14-16 and 16-19, now regarded by many as a 14-19 continuum.

The Language Awareness movement has grown considerably since its beginnings around 1980. Richard Aplin, co-author of one of the earliest publications on the subject (*Introduction to Language*, 1981), describes in the first contribution to the book's third section on 'expanding the horizon', the

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movement's development and examines its theory and practice. The proponents of this valuable aspect of language work in schools would do well to keep a close eye on the development of the national curriculum, since its inclusion on the timetable of schools will depend to some extent on what flexibility is available.

Marion Molteno (author of the CILT publication *Teaching Britain's community languages: materials and methods*, 1986) combines with Ralph Russell to present a powerful argument for community languages. We have been slow in the UK to respond to the fact that very significant numbers of children and adults are already (or potentially) multi-lingual. The authors describe why that has been the case and propose ways in which this large pool of linguistic and cultural talent can be properly nurtured in schools: they present a challenge which could bring, as they put it, 'a new sense of relevance to all language teaching'.

While developments for the 11-16 age range have been proceeding rapidly, the 16-19 group has not been neglected. New 'A' level syllabuses, a wide range of 'AO' examinations, and the soon to be introduced 'AS' level, as well as a variety of other possibilities, present sixth formers with a great deal of choice. Much still remains to be done, and discussions about the reform of 'A' level are yet again taking place, despite the failure of previous carefully produced proposals. Alan Moys describes in the book's fourth section on the changing scene beyond 16 the new 'A' level syllabuses in foreign languages. Anne Stevens and Richard Aplin do a similar job for the pre-vocational, non-specialist and 'AS' courses now available. Antony Peck sets out a programme for reforms in Sixth form language work generally: this individualistic view of the possibilities provides a useful contribution to the continuing debate about post-compulsory provision. Gareth Thomas of Bristol Polytechnic describes the range of possibilities in higher education.

Two appendices include further information on the range of 'A' level and 'AS' and other syllabuses currently available.

Our intention is that, taken together, the contributions in this book will provide a state-of-the-art analysis of the current issues of concern to foreign language teachers. It aims too, however, to explain how we have reached that current state and to look forward to the opportunities that lie ahead in the last decade of the twentieth century, when we should be recalling the impetus given to our subject a hundred years or so earlier by the pioneers of the Direct Method. They, I think, would approve of the exciting initiatives which their successors four generations or so later are putting into practice. Some latter-day Viëtor should even now be penning a tract with the title *Der Sprachunterricht ist umgekehrt!*

SECTION I

LANGUAGE TEACHING POLICY

FROM COMPLACENCY TO CONVICTION:

Thirty years of language teaching theory, practice and policy

David Phillips

Theory and practice, 1957-87

Learning a language at school in 1957 was an exclusive affair, confined largely to grammar and independent schools. French was seen as an essential part of the humanistic curriculum of which the selective schools were the guardians. To ask what was the point of learning French for five years (as most grammar school pupils did) would have been like questioning the learning of Latin: you did it because it was good training and contributed to the basic intellectual equipment of the educated classes. Talk of communicative purpose was unnecessary. If you learnt the language thoroughly - that is, if you mastered grammar and syntax and accumulated a range of basic vocabulary and if you had an eye and an ear for accuracy - you would be able to communicate for most conceivable purposes.

The teaching was what we now call 'traditional' (a euphemism for 'old-fashioned'): it was textbook based and relied heavily on reading and writing, on translation from and into the foreign language. Speaking would consist largely in oral responses to written exercises; listening for understanding was a rare activity, its most common manifestation being through the artificial (good training!) exercise of the formal dictation. It is unlikely that much consideration would have been given to any notional priority of the four skills; but the order deducible from textbooks and examination syllabuses would have been: writing - reading - speaking - listening. This of course is the reverse of the order of priorities to which most learners are accustomed today, and today less attention would be paid to discrete skills than to their essential interaction.

My first French lessons, during the school year 1956-7, consisted of practice in phonetics. Our initial keenness to learn a foreign language was quickly dulled by endless repetition of meaningless sounds, by the learning of curious symbols and the copying of maps of the mouth. The teacher was in his sixties and had clearly been trained by someone who had grown up in the tradition of the Direct Method, but the positive features of that early revolution in language teaching had long been forgotten or distorted, and it was some time before we were allowed to get our tongues around the usual *Qu'est-ce que c'est? C'est une règle*, etc. Textbooks were of the grammar-translation variety (many old

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favourites of which, like those in French by W F H Whitmarsh, and German courses like *Aufenthalt in Deutschland* or *Deutsches Leben* have survived in print into the late 1980s) and provided rigorous and systematic practice of grammar and structure. Whitmarsh's obituarist enthused on the popularity of such books:

Carefully structured courses instilled confidence in even the most bewildered of pupils encountering a foreign language for the first time. A simpler French course and its successor A new simpler French course provided the 'O' level student with examination skills and practice, and remain the obvious choice for the majority of schools where modern language teaching is still considered academically viable (The Times, 23.1.80).

But the confidence and security which such courses were supposed to provide came at the expense of much interest value and vitality: the foreign language was often treated in much the same way as Latin, in the extreme case as a vehicle for decontextualised discussion of how language works rather than what it can do, of formal correctness rather than actual usage. Thus you would be taught to form questions in French primarily by using the formula *Est-ce que ...* and a formulation like *Comment tu t'appelles?* would be considered wrong; in German *wegen* would always take the genitive case, the *Sie* form would be drilled at the expense of *du* and *ihr* forms, etc. A cartoon in the *Times Educational Supplement* once showed a harassed teacher giving his pupils a mid-Channel briefing before they set foot in France on an 'O' level trip: *Remember, everyone, he was saying, Je ne parle pas français.*

'O' level syllabuses reflected and reinforced this academic approach to the teaching of language: prose translation, unseen, free composition, dictation and a token oral test were the usual components of an examination which gave the imprimatur of basic proficiency to those who were successful in it. In 1987, the last year of 'O' level in the UK, it was still possible to take an examination with those components.

If there was a 'mood' in language teaching in 1957 it was the complacency of the 'never had it so good' years: the educational world enjoyed considerable stability and, six years into the Conservative administration which would have another seven to run, there was no need to disturb that equilibrium. By 1967 the backcloth against which modern languages were being taught had changed considerably, if not quite beyond recognition.

Anthony Crosland's Circular 10/65 had signalled, by launching the comprehensive school as the 'normal' school in most LEAs, the beginning of a massive expansion in the teaching of languages. No longer would only a privileged minority have an opportunity to learn French or, indeed, the other languages whose interests were being vigorously promoted: German, Spanish and Russian. But the revolution in schooling could not have happened at a more difficult time as far as language teaching was concerned. In the early and mid sixties a fast developing reappraisal of teaching methods had been taking place, and a series of new courses was being produced which would pave the way for the more fundamental shifts of the seventies and eighties. The audio-visual

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revolution invigorated language teaching to an extent which is barely credible today.

In 1967 I was teaching first year grammar school pupils from the newly published early stages of the Nuffield/Schools Council German course *Vorwärts*. My Head of Department, not quite convinced that a new dawn was about to break, insisted that the classes continue to use *Aufenthalt in Deutschland*, a well established course dating back to 1948 (and from which I had been taught myself), **simultaneously!** The contrast in style was dramatic. In *Vorwärts*, and in its predecessors in French, the textbook approach was expanded and access to the wider (and at least pseudo-real) world was facilitated by the battery of tapes, filmstrips and other aids provided. The voices of native speakers were heard in the classroom, and the language had an authentic and idiomatic ring about it (if frequently in a somewhat contrived style: Hans: *Schau, Lieselotte! Das ist der Turm, und das ist der Marktplatz*. Lieselotte: *Oh, der ist aber schön!*). Grammar and syntax were 'taught' in contextualised settings and as and when required. Thus the learner would not have to wait until four or five years into the course before meeting structures previously considered too complex for early introduction (conditional and subjunctive forms, for example). Language laboratories were being systematically promoted and LEAs were developing programmes to introduce them into large numbers of schools. The audio-visual courses contained drills which would practise new forms in context until they could be mastered.

Courses like *Vorwärts* changed the face of language teaching up and down the country. They had an impact too on GCE and CSE examination boards, many of which were quick to adopt alternative syllabuses that reflected the new emphases in teaching. But schools were faced for the first time with the need to teach French (as in most cases) to virtually the whole ability range; GCE syllabuses catered only for the top 20% and CSE for those down to the 40th percentile, leaving the rest of the school population with no examination to aim at. Consequently, and in contrast to selective schools where French usually formed part of a compulsory core curriculum, the majority of pupils developed the habit of abandoning their language study at the earliest possible opportunity. Language teachers in the mid sixties were struggling to come to terms with the new courses and methods; the expectation that they should at the same time cope with the whole ability range put a strain on the system from which it is still recovering.

The audio-visual courses, too, failed to deliver what had been widely expected, if not promised. As I have written elsewhere, the audio-visual approach

succumbed to the dangers inherent in systems: the regular approach could so easily slip into routine and dullness; the visual aids dated, the disembodied voices on the tapes lapsed into caricature; method had failed again, despite the convincing enough methodology (Phillips, 1986).

Surprising similarities were noticed between the exercises of some of the courses and their more traditional predecessors and competitors. One highly

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successful audio-visual course was dubbed 'Whitmarsh *son-et-lumière*'. The behaviourist theories which had produced the audio-lingual courses from which the audio-visual method had developed were widely questioned, if not wholly discredited. Skinner lost out to Chomsky.

Examination results were not improving to any significant degree, despite the large increase in entries; failure was rife in the early seventies as faith in the new methods diminished. The main problem, at least as far as pupils' being ready for public examination demands was concerned, lay in the confusion which resulted from an 'unsystematic' approach to grammar and syntax encouraged by the methods adopted in many courses. Pupils were 'confused' because they had not learnt paradigms or mastered lists of irregular verbs, and this was disastrous in examinations which still required a high degree of accuracy, especially in the written language. The 'confidence' 'instilled' by 'carefully structured' courses such as those by Whitmarsh was no longer there. Earlier generations preparing for 'O' level would have counted off the letters of MRS DAVENTRAP to remember *être* verbs, or following a long tradition in the teaching of Latin ('No wonder that his eyeballs blaze/At *fluminem or *flumines'), would have learnt jingles like

The dative preps are but a few:

Mit, nach, seit, bei, aus, von, zu ..., etc.

But if you had learnt your grammatical forms in context and without that detailed explanation which characterised the grammar-translation method, if you had learnt a phrase like *Er arbeitet mit den Händen* without knowing that *mit* takes the dative case, that the plural of *Hand* is *Hände*, that nouns in the dative plural add -n, that the definite article is preferred to the possessive adjective in such phrases, then you would have difficulty in writing an accurate essay in the foreign language.

Teachers had often been lulled into a false sense of security by the sheer impact of the new courses: pupils apparently understood what they heard on tape and saw on the screen (listening comprehension had proved to be the most undervalued of all the skills, and pupils were discovered to be remarkable adept at listening and understanding); they managed the four-phase language drills; they got through the graded readers and seemed to enjoy a lot of what they were asked to do. But there were pitfalls. I remember a unit in *Vorwärts* in which someone in a frame of the relevant filmstrip was seen walking through a wood in hunter's garb and with a gun under his arm: *Er geht auf die Jagd* was the phrase pupils chorused and gave back whenever asked *Was macht er?* It all seemed so straightforward, until one day I asked for a translation: what did *Er geht auf die Jagd* mean? Nobody thought it meant anything other than 'he is going through the wood'. There was a dangerous assumption that the course would take care of everything: follow the teacher's book and all would be well. The vigilant teacher, sceptical of panaceas, would always avoid such dangers. The best solution would be to use the course as a resource, adapting it to the particular needs of particular classes. The best approach must surely always be eclectic. But modern language teaching has always put faith in methods: its

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history, it has been said, is 'littered with abandoned bandwagons'. It took the crisis of the seventies to produce another approach and one which, I would argue, has fewer faults than its many predecessors, provided it is interpreted with a liberal regard to common sense.

By 1977 modern language teaching was, it seemed, quite firmly in the doldrums. That year saw the publication of the critical HMI report *Modern Languages in Comprehensive Schools*. The headlines screamed its message: 'The Monoglots of English Schooling', and 'Mediocre standards in modern languages at 83 comprehensives' (*The Times*, 17.3.77); 'Most language teaching a waste of time - HMIs' (*TES*, 18.3.77). And yet the following year saw the publication of *New Objectives in Modern Language Teaching: Defined Syllabuses and Tests in French and German*, the result of developments which had been taking place in Oxfordshire at a time of widespread talk of 'crisis' in modern language teaching. *New Objectives* described the Oxfordshire version of what soon became known as 'graded tests'. Several claims are made as to the origin of the idea that modern languages syllabuses and tests might have something to learn from the various grades available to musicians through the Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music, that learners should be allowed to proceed through a succession of grades, each of which would indicate attainment of a defined level of competence. 'Competence' was a key element. Cynics at the time were talking of CSE as a certificate of incompetence; the new tests would reverse that notion, and attainment of Level One, say, would emphatically not mean a low level of competence, merely the reaching of an elementary standard of actual performance. Those with Grade One in the piano are not poor piano players: they are beginners whose accomplishment at beginners' level has been formally recognised. Brian Page was a leading proponent of the idea, so too was David Wilkins with his development of the idea of notional/functional syllabuses (Wilkins, 1976); much early work was done under the aegis of the Council of Europe (by Van Ek, for example). The Oxfordshire Modern Languages Achievement Certificate (OMLAC) was the first scheme to gain wide publicity, and it was quickly emulated by a large number of LEAs. 'Graded tests' were soon to prove so popular that a new movement came consciously into being, GOML, 'Graded Objectives in Modern Languages'.

The main advantage of the schemes was the fact that they gave pupils of all abilities realistic goals to aim at. (OMLAC in its original conception was designed - mistakenly it was later felt - only for those of lower ability; it was eventually brought more into line with the principles of the Associated Board's music syllabuses). Teachers attested to vastly increased motivation among pupils who at last, through carefully designed defined-content syllabuses, could see goals well within their sights, and achieve certification. A research project based in the University of York (Buckby et al., 1981) produced results which tended to support teachers' subjective views about the transformation of attitude and motivation in classes following graded objectives syllabuses. The Inspectorate carried out no fewer than three special investigations of 'graded tests of defined objectives' in 1982 and 1984. Their reports (DES, 1983, 1985b,c), though mostly equivocal in their conclusions, nevertheless did much to boost interest in and enthusiasm for the graded objectives movement.

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In an early paper Brian Page had argued (Page, 1974) that what was to become the graded objectives movement should be seen as an alternative to the proposed 16+ examination. At that time there was a real possibility for a radical reappraisal of assessment and examining in modern languages. Graded tests could have been aligned in their higher levels with CSE and 'O' level and indeed with 'A' level. Better than that, though, they could have replaced existing or projected examinations, having the independent and fully recognised status of the graded examinations in music. But such a radical notion did not survive: plans for a common examination at 16+ moved on inexorably through various political ups and downs, until a decision was taken to introduce the new examinations in the summer of 1988. GCSE has provided a new impetus, a new opportunity for reappraisal of the theory and practice of language teaching: it has happened in some measure at the expense of the graded test schemes, but the new sense of direction in the GCSE syllabuses is built firmly on the communicative philosophy of much that was and is good in those schemes.

The *National Criteria for French* (DES/Welsh Office 1985) provide the blueprint for the syllabuses on offer from the newly constituted examining bodies. The aims outlined in the *National Criteria* (paras. 2.1-2.7, p.1) are as follows:

- *to develop the ability to use French effectively for purposes of practical communication;*
- *to form a sound base of the skills, language and attitudes required for further study, work and leisure;*
- *to offer insights into the culture and civilisation of French-speaking countries;*
- *to develop an awareness of the nature of language and language learning;*
- *to provide enjoyment and intellectual stimulation;*
- *to encourage positive attitudes to foreign language learning and to speakers of foreign languages and a sympathetic approach to other cultures and civilisations;*
- *to promote learning skills of a more general application (e.g. analysis, memorising, drawing of inferences).*

And the principles (para. 6.1, p.5) listed under the section on Techniques of Assessment include the following:

The basic principle is that the tasks set in the examination should be, as far as possible, authentic and valuable outside the classroom. The material presented to candidates should be carefully selected authentic French, although it might at times be necessary to edit, simplify, or gloss occasional words. Tests should not place candidates at a disadvantage by putting an undue burden on memory or aptitude irrelevant to the use or understanding of the language.

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'Communicative' language teaching presupposes that the main purpose of learning a foreign language is to communicate through it, to use ability in the language as a practical skill. Work in the language classroom should centre round the conveying of information in appropriate contexts. I have outlined some basic principles elsewhere (Phillips, 1987b):

Communicative language teaching attempts to escape from the formal (or 'traditional' or 'grammar-translation') approaches, institutionalised by public examination syllabuses, that have stifled much innovation in the past. Teaching for communication encourages the active participation of the learners, is indeed, more learner-centred than previous approaches to language teaching. It insists that in order to make progress the learner must be allowed to make mistakes and must be engaged in activities whose purpose is clear: some proper communication must take place. This means that the teacher must devise activities which provide opportunities for students to use their language skills not just to practise and re-practise paradigms of grammar and syntax (in order to excel at prose translation, for example) but to make use of the language as a medium of communication and understanding - or, in other words, in order to impart and receive information.

But we can take things a step further and say that the imparting and reception of information is only meaningful and worthwhile if that information is not already known. When the teacher points to a desk and asks *Was ist das?* the only real communication that is taking place (unless he is blind, or in a darkened room) has to do with the student convincing or failing to convince that an item of vocabulary has been learnt. Everyone knows what the object in question is, and they know that the questioner knows. The exercise is artificial. This would not matter if such questions were used solely as a means to an end - vocabulary clearly must be practised, so too must question forms - but there is always a danger that such language work will become an end in itself, divorced from any real application.

'Communicative' teaching strategies provide a liberating flexibility of approach to the teacher of languages prepared to use them in an undogmatic way, adapting to circumstance.

These latter points are of crucial importance. It is easy to ridicule a much used course book which shows a picture of a fried egg and asks pupils if it is a window, but it does so in the context of an exercise to practise *kein*, and we must not lose sight of the fun that can be had from asking foolish questions deliberately. Communicative methodology will fail if it is too dogmatic: there must be a proper balance between the teaching of those elements of grammar and syntax which are essential to the pupil's ability to manipulate the foreign language, and the laudable purpose of teaching for communication. The problem of polarisation has been well put by Harding et al. (1980):

We may still not be giving pupils the means to generate sentences for themselves in new situations, means by which they can perceive patterns,

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analogue, and realise which words fit with which; in fact, we may still not be giving them enough idea of structure to enable them to make sentences for themselves. This is a very real problem. It almost appears as though we have on the one hand a grammatical approach which enables those who persist with it to generate enormous numbers of sentences which may not be of any use to them, and on the other hand a communicative competence approach which enables them to operate only in specifically limited areas.

The clear answer to this dilemma lies in the conscious avoidance of the extremes that result in such polarisation; it lies in what I would term a 'new eclecticism'. Teaching about the foreign language does not have to be dull, formal, and 'counter-communicative'. An enlightened eclectic approach to the teaching of grammar and syntax would draw on some of the excellent theory and practice exemplified in Language Awareness courses (see Hawkins, 1981, 1984, and for an early example of good practice Aplin et al., 1981). It would draw, too, on some of the imaginative structural exercises in courses like *Vorwärts* and its contemporaries. It would not be ashamed to use whatever past practices had proved their worth in enabling pupils to understand sometimes complex concepts and forms. But it would do none of this at the expense of the living language and its use for communicative purposes. That aim would be explicit in most of the activities of the classroom. It would follow that the foreign language would be the medium, if not of all instruction then at least of most instruction between teacher and pupil. (Again, the dogma that prescribes the foreign language for all classroom activity in all situations is counter-productive: it should be an expectation that most teachers will **prefer** to make the foreign language the language of the classroom; there are now many guidelines available (OMLAC, 1983, for example) to facilitate this.)

Teachers' 'craft knowledge' has been much undervalued by theorists in the past. A 'new eclecticism' in language teaching would capitalise on the tacit, intuitive knowledge of the practitioner; it would thus encourage that individualism which is a fundamental strength of the British education system (and which its enemies seek to destroy in favour of Continental styles of control and centralisation); it would eschew all prescriptive uniformity but would allow of sensible agreement and compromise about departmental policy and development; it would, above all, cause no one to feel ashamed of using strategies which did not conform to the nostrums of whatever theory happened to be in vogue.

Linguists have on the whole been badly served by theory. Direct Method, grammar-translation, oral compromise, audio-lingual, audio-visual - all have had their day and have proved wanting, but in a curious Hegelian sense they have contributed to the wealth of possibilities at the disposal of the language teacher today. Together with more bizarre approaches such as suggestopedia or total physical response (and the extraordinary techniques of one American linguist who has his pupils cover their heads with paper bags while he shouts and fires blanks from a pistol in order to increase their nervous concentration!) they have stimulated debate and encouraged experiment - and they have led to a wealth of teaching materials of all kinds: modern linguists can draw on a vast

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bank of resources to put together a package appropriate to their individual needs. An eclectic teaching style gains in strength from access to the wide variety of teaching aids now available.

The last thirty years have seen remarkable developments in the theory and practice of language teaching. The year 1987 sees the last 'O' level examinations and anticipates the first cohort of GCSE entrants; it sees also much talk of a national curriculum which, in conjunction with the National Criteria and the new syllabuses, will have serious implications for the future. Those implications will now be considered against the background of the many documents, official and otherwise, which have contributed to the debate about policy since the early seventies.

Policy, 1974-1987

With its recommendation that there should be no further expansion of French teaching in primary schools, *Primary French in the Balance* (Burstall et al., 1974) had a far-reaching effect on policy for language teaching. Whether or not its conclusions were justified (and it had strong critics, among them Buckby (1976) and the Nuffield Foundation (1977)) the Report ensured that French would be started at the age of 11 in the case of most pupils. The Primary French experiment had itself helped to ensure the dominance of French in the curriculum by giving that language a special impetus and status. On the assumption that children would be starting French at primary school the Nuffield/Schools Council course writers even planned for some of their courses being started in the first year of secondary school: hence the early stages of *Vorwärts* were pitched at 10- to 11-year-olds. Some twenty years later there were only some 8% of schools offering German as a first foreign language, and a mere 1.5% offering Spanish (DES/Welsh Office, 1988, p 8).

The question which language(s) to teach, and when, has featured much in the policy debate, particularly since the early eighties. A major factor here has been how to accommodate the second foreign language in the curriculum of the comprehensive school. One report on the second foreign language (Schools Council, 1982) was subtitled 'A question of survival', so serious were the problems perceived to be.

The position of the second foreign language has always posed problems. When should it be started? The national preference seems to be for the third year. Who should do it? Most schools seem to allow those who have done well in the first language, usually French, to start a second language, usually German. How should it be taught? The length of the course (two, three or four years) will determine the methods used, though there is evidence to suggest that teachers tend to use a more traditional grammatical/structural approach (Miller, 1980; Phillips, 1983). How should it be slotted into the timetable? This is the question to which no wholly satisfactory answer has been found: extraction from other subjects, lessons before or after school or in the lunch hour, the creation of 'false options' for those not taking a second language, a true option system - these and other possibilities either play havoc with the notion of a common lower school curriculum or create inconveniences or charges of unfairness or élitism. Some

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timetabling tricks have been devised (Schools Council, 1982) but real problems remain. The Oxford research project on second foreign languages described the situation thus:

Provision of second foreign languages and alternative first foreign languages is...at best unsystematic and at worst haphazard. There are few signs of proper local policy, let alone regional or national consensus, except in so far as the complacent acceptance of the status quo can be regarded as policy. (Phillips & Stencil, 1983, p 71).

In the late eighties there are signs that give some encouragement and some cause for worry. The worry still concerns the second foreign language. *Modern foreign languages to 16* (DES, 1987b), an otherwise useful and uncontentious document, concludes that *the most desirable solution seems...to be to offer the second foreign language from the beginning of the fourth year when option choices are made*. The document anticipates the main objection to such a policy, namely that a short two-year period to attain the same standard required in the first foreign language would result in *recourse to narrow objectives and restricting methods*. It is indeed difficult to imagine GCSE language syllabuses being taught in the spirit in which they have been conceived over only two years. The DES approval of such an arrangement, not unrelated to proposals for the national curriculum, will cause considerable setbacks to linguists striving just to maintain the second foreign language in the lower school curriculum, let alone to those wishing to move the start forward from the third to the second year. It may be noted that barely two years earlier, in *Better Schools*, the Government had argued that *a second foreign language should be offered from the second or third year to those pupils who can benefit from it* (Cmnd. 9469, 1985, p 22).

Paradoxically, it is argued, a fourth year start in an options system would increase the case for diversification of first foreign language provision. The supporters of languages other than French would divert their energies to the issue of diversification once the battle for the second foreign language had been effectively lost. This is small comfort. Encouragement comes, however, from the fact that diversification is DES policy: there is still a sufficiently large pool of teachers qualified to teach German, Spanish, Italian and Russian to allow considerable diversification of language provision. This resource will need to be deliberately exploited if the pattern of provision is to change significantly. This will involve offering languages other than French far more frequently as first or alternative first foreign languages so that many more pupils of all abilities have access to them. Some larger schools offering only French as a first foreign language should consider offering two first foreign languages; smaller schools might break altogether with the tradition of French as a first foreign language, offering some other language in its place (DES/Welsh Office, 1986, p 13).

The need for diversification, the policy statement goes on to say, is pressing. Funds were announced in 1987 and made available early in 1988 for ten LEAs to develop plans for local diversification policies. At the same time research projects began in Oxford (OXPROD, 1987; Phillips, 1987a) and at the National

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Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) to investigate aspects of diversification of first foreign language provision. The hegemony of French is of course unlikely to be overturned, but the time is propitious for a substantial increase in the teaching of German and Spanish (for which languages there is no lack of good teaching materials) and, indeed, for Russian (which suffered a severe decline despite the optimistic Annan Report (1962)) and Italian (which has been badly neglected).

But fundamental to all considerations as to which language(s) to teach - and when - is the question 'Why teach foreign languages in school at all?' There have been those who have argued that languages should not automatically be included in the school curriculum. Harry Rée (1972) conceived the notion of a 'licence' to learn a language which could be cashed in at any stage. David Hargreaves has argued forcefully that a foreign language should have no place in the core curriculum,

partly because I am not persuaded that all pupils should spend so much time in learning the rudiments of a language they will soon forget (1982, p 176).

He sees the compulsory learning of a foreign language as an example of the imposition of the former grammar school curriculum on the comprehensive school. Hargreaves still believes that

the main point of learning a foreign language is the understanding of its culture and the access to its literature.

This, he feels, is beyond the powers and interest of most pupils. He does not cite either the broader educational benefit to be gained from the process of learning a language (in my view its most crucial justification) or the practical aim of communication.

But despite the critics we have now reached the situation where the Government has convinced itself that the study of a foreign language is an essential part of the secondary curriculum not only for most but actually for all pupils in England and Wales, though not in Scotland, and up to the age of 16. It is worth devoting some space to an examination of how this position has been reached.

From the time of the gloomy HMI discussion paper *Modern Languages in Comprehensive Schools* (1977) there have been successive statements leading to such a policy position. In 1977 the Green Paper *Education in Schools: A Consultative Document* asserted that

few, inside or outside the schools, would contest that alongside English and mathematics, science should find a secure place for all pupils, at least to the age of 16, and that a modern language should do so for as high a proportion as practicable.

That same *annus mirabilis* saw the publication of the HMI document *Curriculum 11-16* ('The 'Red Book') which put forward the case for a core

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curriculum and defined eight 'areas of experience' as a checklist, one of many possible ones, for curricular analysis and construction; they were: the aesthetic and creative, the ethical, the linguistic, the mathematical, the physical, the scientific, the social and political, the spiritual. An earlier and better known exercise of a similar kind, Hirst's 'forms of knowledge', had neglected the linguistic domain. *Curriculum 11-16* proposed four periods a week (in a 40-period week) for a modern language. Curiously, the document in its original form contained no 'statement' by an HMI Subject Committee on modern languages: such a statement was later issued separately and then included in a subsequent reissue of the Red Book (in 1979).

Also in 1977 a circular was issued to collect information on local education authority arrangements for the school curriculum (DES/Welsh Office, 1977). Among the questions it asked were these:

C9 What is the authority's policy for the provision of courses in the various modern languages in secondary schools? To what extent is the present position in the authority's area in accord with that policy?

C10 What steps have the authority taken to help schools decide which modern languages should be taught to which groups of pupils between the ages of 11 and 16, and what should be the minimum length of language courses?

Circular 14/77 must have been an embarrassment to many local authorities, since it was bound to reveal inadequacies in the exercising of their responsibilities under Section 23 of the 1944 Education Act, which states that secular instruction in schools shall be under the control of the local education authority. Responses to questions like the two quoted gave cause for some concern. The report of the circular 14/77 review (DES/Welsh Office 1977) made a clear statement on modern languages:

There is a need for clear policies on the provision of modern languages in primary, middle and secondary schools [...]. Such policies must take account of the availability of teachers. The dominant position of French gives rise to concern about the position of other major languages. Decisions about the ages at which children should start (and finish) modern language courses, and about the languages available, are often made at school level. The Secretaries of State believe that there should be more local co-ordination in the light of broad guidelines which would help to promote national coherence and protect the position of less commonly taught modern languages (p 5).

Statements of that kind have become a *Leitmotiv* in subsequent DES and HMI documents. Two-fifths of the responses showed that the authority in question *had not formulated a specific policy on the provision of particular languages*. In addition those authorities which did have a policy showed a *very wide variety of approaches to the pattern of language provision [...]* and *there was an equally wide variation in the actual provision which authorities described (p.101)*. Though the majority of authorities indicated that they preferred a first modern

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language course to last for a minimum of three years there is no specific evidence in the report to suggest enthusiasm for the provision of modern languages for all pupils from 11 to 16.

The most worrying feature of the Circular 14/77 review is the extent to which lack of proper policy was revealed. Too much responsibility was being delegated to schools (or, more exactly, to headteachers) at a time when guidance and support would have been beneficial. National bodies like the various language associations, and individual academics and researchers can and do exhort change, but power and influence rest with local authorities and their officers to encourage and promote appropriate developments in schools. It is the lack of proper policy initiatives in so many authorities that has led to an increasing tendency towards centralised control of the curriculum, a tendency which can be traced back to James Callaghan's Ruskin College speech of 1976 and which has found its apogee in the consultative document *The National Curriculum 5-16* (DES/Welsh Office 1987) and the legislation envisaged in the Education Reform Bill for the implementation of the ideas it contains.

A *View of the Curriculum*, an addition to the HMI 'Matters for Discussion' series, appeared in 1980. The section on the secondary curriculum contains a number of 'propositions for consideration', including one on modern languages:

There is also a strong case for a modern language in the education of all pupils, and for the establishment of a national policy on the place of individual languages in the system [...]. A foreign language sustained in the compulsory educational programme of at least a much higher proportion of pupils than now is probably a first target to be aimed at, with considerable rethinking of the character and timing of foreign language study for those pupils at present unlikely to sustain a five-year course (pp 16-17).

Similar points were made in a consultative document issued by the Secretaries of State in the same year. That view, still not an unequivocal statement of intent with regard to the 11-16 curriculum, was reflected in a paper issued by the Secretaries of State for Education and Science and for Wales in March 1981, *The School Curriculum*:

The Secretaries of State believe that ... most pupils should have the opportunity to learn a foreign language; and that at least two or, if possible, three years of language teaching should be provided as a minimum. Wherever possible pupils should be encouraged to keep up a modern language until the end of the fifth year of secondary education (p 16).

And the same paper reinforces (as had *A framework for the school curriculum*) the point concerning the need for local policy:

French is, for various reasons, the dominant foreign language studied; but languages other than French need also to be offered within the area of each local education authority. The Secretaries of State consider that the available language teaching resources can be used to full effect only if modern

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language provision as a whole is planned by the local education authority across its area, taking account of the facilities available in both schools and further education (p 16).

Better Schools, published in March 1985, further reflects these strands of argument:

... the great majority of pupils should receive a course in a foreign language designed to be of lasting value, and ... a second foreign language should be offered from the second or third year to those pupils who can benefit from it. The choice of first or alternative languages should reflect the LEA's policy for foreign languages in its area (p 22).

In parallel with these various HMI and DES documents, concerned with the curriculum in general, a series of papers has been published relating specifically to foreign languages. They are: *Foreign Languages in the School Curriculum. A consultative paper* (DES/Welsh Office, 1983); *Foreign Languages in the School Curriculum. A draft statement of policy* (DES/Welsh Office, 1986); *Modern Foreign Languages to 16* (DES, 1987b); and *Modern Languages in the School Curriculum. A statement of policy* (DES/Welsh Office 1988). It is in these documents that the broader policy aim of a foreign language for all up to the age of 16 is developed.

The first of the documents suggested that

more pupils, say 50-60 per cent, should continue their foreign language study for longer, so that they can attain a level of proficiency which is useful to them in their adult life and career.

It also suggested, however, that some pupils might start a foreign language course later than in their first year in secondary schools and continue with it to the end of the fifth year *to keep the subject fresh in mind when they proceed to post-compulsory education or to employment*. The draft statement of policy asserted that three years of study was

insufficient for the majority of pupils who are capable of deriving benefit from a longer course of study and of achieving success in public examinations at 16+.

'The main target for action' was to be the securing of an increase in take-up of first foreign languages in years four and five, **especially among boys**. The document also clearly charges LEAs with the duty to develop clear policies and to monitor their implementation. Paragraph 12, referring to *Better Schools*, makes specific the policy that *for most pupils [a foreign language course] should involve studying a foreign language throughout compulsory education*.

This statement is picked up in *Modern foreign languages to 16*, where it is argued that 'constrained' and 'free' options systems result on the one hand in the

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creation of 'an undesirable hierarchy of subject' and on the other in differentiation by sex. The document reaches the conclusion:

Since the arguments for learning a foreign language apply across the ability range it is arguable that all pupils should learn at least one foreign language for the five years of compulsory secondary schooling. The inclusion of a foreign language in the common curriculum, as in other European countries, is thus a logical and desirable step. (p 29)

And this is the position adopted in the 1987 consultative document on *The National Curriculum 5-16* and in the subsequent Education Reform Bill. The proposed 'foundation subjects' (including a 'core' of English, Mathematics and Science) would include a modern foreign language. There are of course all kinds of objections to the selectivity of particular 'subjects' for inclusion in the compulsory curriculum. But the Government is now set to ensure that a foreign language is studied by virtually all children throughout their secondary education. The Government's position in this regard is, it must be remembered, in line with statements by the Council of the European Communities to the effect that *knowledge of foreign languages is a key element in the construction of Europe* and that *one modern language in addition to the mother tongue should be studied in depth*.

The latest and most definitive official pronouncement has come in *Modern Languages in the School Curriculum. A Statement of Policy*. This document, which has developed out of the consultative paper and draft statement which preceded it, contains no surprises (except perhaps that extra funding previously envisaged will not now be available) and provides quite unequivocal recommendations concerning some key issues. Its main conclusions are that:

- *the great majority of pupils should study at least one modern foreign language throughout compulsory secondary education and a much greater number than at present should continue beyond it;*
- *more pupils should study modern foreign languages other than French - e.g. one of the main languages of the European Community - for their first foreign language;*
- *standards of communication in foreign languages should be improved for pupils of all abilities.*

The policy statement gives added force to the proposal that a second foreign language should be offered from the fourth year, since its earlier introduction is inconsistent with the provision of a 'broad and balanced' curriculum in years 1-3. LEAs and schools are called upon to ensure that a *reasonable proportion of their pupils of all abilities study a language other than French as their first foreign language*. LEAs should prepare and implement clear and positive policies for foreign language teaching in schools, a welcome pronouncement on LEAs' responsibilities which should encourage coherent local development.

What are we to make of all this? There are clearly two concerns which have worried policymakers and which have resulted in the decision that modern

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languages would occupy a place in the compulsory curriculum up to the age of 16. One is that large numbers of boys decide at an early stage not to continue with a foreign language. The evidence (DES, 1985a; Powell, 1986) is clear enough. If a language is compulsory for all pupils the sex bias will vanish, or at least it will no longer appear to be a problem: attitudes and attainment, however, might still make it manifest. The other is that the Government feels that Britain's position as a trading nation will be hampered by a languages policy that does not do more than simply encourage as many pupils as possible to learn languages. This latter point is important but probably over-stated. Those playing a part in the economic role of Britain in overseas markets are likely to be limited to the school population at present studying languages voluntarily, and the degree of competence required at a level above the merely social is in such a situation so high as to be beyond the reach of most pupils. Comparisons with the position in other countries in Europe founder simply because motivation to learn English must clearly be greater than the motivation of English speakers to learn other languages. That remains a fact, however regrettable it is.

The main argument for the inclusion of the foreign language in the compulsory curriculum ought to be primarily an educational one: that language learning belongs in the 'linguistic' domain defined as an 'area of experience' by HMI. That said, however, the practical problems of the policy are immense. Leaving aside the staffing implications of the expansion in language teaching that will happen if the policy is implemented, we are still faced with the reality of the problem of teaching a large number of children who appear to have no wish to continue with their language study. Michael Smith (1987) has put the case forcefully; while agreeing that the drop-out rate at 14 is far too high and that language learning needs to be more effectively 'marketed' he warns that to force children who have clearly reached their ceiling in French at some stage during the second year to continue with the subject

constitutes an unwarranted cruelty, not only to them but also to their long-suffering teachers. It will also constitute a complete waste of time and resources, both of which could be put to better use elsewhere in a national curriculum, and could cause a build-up of resentment which society would come to regret.

The pragmatism of such a view must not be dismissed too glibly: if that is the way teachers perceive the problems of compulsory language learning for all in years four and five, then it has to be taken seriously. The dilemma here, however, is that there are many schools which already successfully implement a common core curriculum up to the age of 16 which includes a foreign language (see DES, 1987a), and the teachers in those schools would not readily associate themselves with a view of this kind, however pragmatic it may appear. It can also be argued that the availability of language awareness and 'taster' courses in various languages, together with the graded objectives syllabuses and tests, the new GCSE syllabuses and an ever-increasing supply of published teaching materials at all levels, should provide scope for a successful curriculum

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'package' to be devised for all learners, of whatever ability. And this is where the educational argument is crucial: if we believe that it is educationally sound for all secondary school pupils to learn (or to learn about) foreign languages, then that should be sufficient justification for their inclusion in a common curriculum.

But Michael Smith's argument appears to receive added justification if we look at the research evidence on the actual ability of most children learning languages. The Assessment of Performance Unit (APU) has carried out major surveys of French, German and Spanish (in 1983; DES etc, 1985) and French (in 1984; DES etc, 1986) which indicate, among some more positive evidence, that a lot of measured ability is lamentably low. Few pupils tested in the 1983 survey of 13-year-olds could *recognise numbers outside the range 1-10, recognise question words outside the context of common set locutions; follow an extended text with complete understanding* (p 395). The 1984 survey (also of 13-year-olds) found that a substantial majority

although capable of performing many of the assessment tasks, were unable to follow the meaning of extended texts in listening or reading, produce continuous writing, give an independent description or report in speaking, or take the initiative in conversation by asking questions (pp 243-4).

These findings recall the 1977 HMI document which among other things found that in the majority of the 83 schools surveyed pupils showed

an inability to produce other than inadequate or largely unusable statements in the modern language; inefficient reading skills; and writing limited mainly to mechanical reproduction which was often extremely inaccurate (p 8).

The APU findings are as depressing as those reported ten years earlier by HMI, but it must be remembered that the curricular advances which the graded objectives movement has brought were not so much in evidence in 1977, and the general acceptance of communicative competence as a primary aim in language teaching was not widely manifest at the time the APU's 1983 survey was conducted. GCE and CSE syllabuses were still obliging schools to place an excessive emphasis on written skills and on the formal teaching which could result in a high degree of grammatical accuracy. The GCSE syllabuses, imperfect as they are in many ways, will provide a certain liberation from the former constraints and enable teachers to concentrate on the development of communicative skills, without due emphasis on the sort of accuracy required in formal writing tasks.

While the Government has been feeling its way towards a policy of expansion and while the newly constituted examining boards have been producing new syllabuses, modern language teachers have been advancing too. The graded objectives movement, not so far able to fulfil Brian Page's vision of it as an alternative to 16+, nonetheless provided teachers with a new vision of the teaching of languages which has been supported by a wealth of developments in the theoretical field. There is now a genuinely new approach to language

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teaching available to teachers which should enable them to cope with the new place of the foreign language in the school curriculum: the challenge for the 1990s is to seize the opportunities which the new status of languages will offer, and not to focus too sharply on the inevitable problems.

That said, however, there are some major worries. Chief among them must be doubts about the future of languages other than French and the position of 'second' foreign languages. In the proposed national curriculum the second foreign language would have to compete with several other subjects for that part of curriculum time which would be available outside the foundation subjects in years four and five. There are fears that, quite apart from the inadequacy of a two-year course to GCSE in any language, the second foreign language will be gradually squeezed out of the 11-16 curriculum. Though this effect on what are essentially languages other than French may be balanced by an increase in the size of the school population learning such a language as first foreign language, this requires a considerable amount of faith in the potential translation of policy into action and practice. It is not unreasonable to be sceptical about delivery in this area on a large enough scale.

As we contemplate developments in the 1990s there are, then, grounds for concern. There is much that is good in foreign language teaching, and in many respects the subject is more secure in its methodological foundations and in its aims than it ever has been. There is more confidence and more conviction about what is happening. Certainly, it is in a position from which expansion can be properly contemplated, but we would do well to recall the effects of the rapid expansion in language teaching of the 1960s, at a time when teachers and schools were not equipped to cope with it. We must hope that the kind of expansion envisaged will not create more problems than it solves. There was much talk when the 1977 HMI report on modern languages in comprehensive schools was published of a 'crisis' in language teaching. That crisis has been squarely faced and in many respects overcome. The future holds out exciting prospects if all concerned with policy making can agree on a coherent framework for expansion - without it we shall be in danger of a second 'crisis' which could do great harm. That must be avoided at all costs.

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SECTION II

THEORY INTO PRACTICE IN THE CLASSROOM

LESSONS FROM THE GRADED OBJECTIVES MOVEMENT

Ann Miller

We are accustomed to speaking of the GOML movement, and the development over the last decade of schemes for Graded Objectives in Modern Languages did indeed bear many of the characteristics which that word evokes: idealism, optimism, collaborative work by teachers at grass roots level often in their own time, and a commitment to change.

The change-over from a structural syllabus to one based on learners' needs defined in terms of communicative intentions, situation, topic and role, represented a profound conceptual shift for most of us. We had been accustomed to starting from the language, not from the learner, and we imagined the learning process to involve the progressive mastery of its formal rules, and so we led our learners through its structures in an order which varied from one course book to another but on which there was a measure of agreement: irregular verbs after regular ones, partitive articles near the beginning, no conditional tenses in the first year. This ordering was not determined by frequency of occurrence of the structures (except in the made-up language of the textbooks whose authors wrote to a discipline that produced every anti-realist effects reminiscent of a post-modernist film where characters stumble around in a bleak wasteland of *-er* verbs), nor by any correspondence with the order of acquisition of these structures in the language of French first or second language learners. It was based rather on an intuitive notion of progression from the simple to the more complex, defined in terms of forms rather than meanings. The complexity of meanings available to learners was not a concern, since the exchange of messages was not a priority: the only function of the language presented to learners was to display its own structure. There was a sense in which many of us felt that we were postponing the expression of learners' own feelings, wishes, opinions and needs until later, perhaps the Sixth form, when they would have mastered enough linguistic forms to permit of 'discussion'. We knew, of course, that few learners would stay the course but in retrospect it seems to have taken us a long time to think of redesigning that course. To some of our colleagues and many of our students we must have resembled the games teacher in *Les Quatre Cent Coups* who leads his pupils out for an energetic run through the streets of Paris, knees raised high in the air to leap hurdles which are real to him but perhaps imaginary to the boys behind him. He is sublimely unaware of what is revealed to the spectator from the rooftop vantage point of Antoine Doinel and his friend René: one by one, the boys drop out and slip away down side roads or

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into shops until he is the only one left running, still offering enthusiastic exhortations to those he confidently imagines to be following him.

The suggestion that there were other ways of designing syllabuses came from a number of different directions in the seventies: the influential Harding/Page article in *AVLJ* in 1974¹ made the perceptive comparison with music exams, which set criteria for acceptable performance at a number of different levels. David Wilkins's book *Notional syllabuses*² explored the idea of syllabuses based on what the learner could do with language, and the Council of Europe³ put forward the crucial notion of a Threshold Level: an attempt to define competence in a foreign language which would fall short of native-speaker perfection but would be adequate for operating in a variety of specified situations. From this was elaborated the similarly illuminating idea of a number of Waystages towards this threshold: an attempt to map out a learner's progress through a foreign language, not in terms of growing mastery of its grammatical framework but as the ability to express an increasingly complex range of meanings. So began a fundamental change in our perspective, which was concretised for many language teachers when they got together with colleagues and grappled with the task of designing syllabuses based on a series of staged objectives.

The impetus for a number of graded assessment schemes came from the perceived need to provide worthwhile objectives for pupils who would not study a language beyond the first two or three years, and such was the reported upturn in motivation that there was soon a heavy demand for these schemes: those LEAs such as Oxfordshire which had been amongst the earliest to produce syllabuses began to do a brisk export trade. Reservations soon began to be expressed from certain quarters: these schemes were teaching nothing but 'campsite French', a performance based on no underlying competence consisting of learned-by-heart phrases strung together, the linguistic equivalent of pianola playing. This is a serious charge which deserves to be examined carefully. It should be noted that a syllabus requiring from pupils only 'language-like behaviour' could not be said to provide a basis for criterion-referenced assessment, which requires that tasks should be defined in such a way that the performance is generalisable. A candidate in a driving test should be able to reverse round any corner, not just the familiar one where he/she has learned to align the lamp-post with the sticker on the rear windscreen. Similarly, one would hope that assessment in language learning would capture the candidate's ability to make generalisations about language use beyond the trivial level of substituting one ice-cream flavour for another.

It may be true that some of the early schemes were intended for use with low achievers who were not expected to move beyond the production of set phrases to a more generative use of the language (although few would now deny that the educational pay-off of being able to perform any kind of exchange at all in a foreign language is greater than that afforded by the experience of failing to understand the rules for conjugating verbs). We need, however, to look beyond the achievements of a particular group of learners and ask what kind of syllabus will in fact offer the possibility of a generative use of language.

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This was the task that teachers in working parties up and down the country set themselves: that of specifying stages of progress through a language which would not be expressed in terms of the ability to manipulate its structures in isolation from a context of use, nor in terms of the ability to parrot learned-by-heart chunks from a phrasebook. Rather, they aimed to take account of the more complex skill of decoding and encoding communicative intentions.

The revolution in syllabus design brought about by GOML necessarily went hand in hand with the increasing prevalence of communicative teaching methods which emphasised the setting of language within an authentic context. The work of Krashen⁴ and other researchers lent support to the view that language learning cannot be characterised as the progressive mastery of forms: it is the exchange of messages that promotes learning. Those rules and relationships that will be learnt the most easily will be those which affect the outcome of a communicative exchange. We would therefore expect a feature like the partitive article in French to be learned late, in spite of its regular appearance in the early stages of course books, since in a real-life or effectively simulated context it would be unlikely to be the determining factor in the success or failure to express a communicative intention. The outcome of a request such as *De chocolat, s'il vous plaît*, will not normally be greatly affected by a mistake in the partitive article. Many teachers will be aware that a number of children seem to operate for some time either with an invariant form of the partitive article (they opt for one or other of the forms and use it on all occasions) or with a random choice from *du*, *de la* or *des* which is likely to change on each occasion.

An insistence on the importance of the transmission of messages as a basis for the learning process would suggest that grammatical features may be more salient in some contexts than in others: in a classroom, for example, the negative in the utterance *Je n'ai pas de stylo* has a different force from that in *Je n'ai pas de lapin*. In the first, it turns the sentence into an admission and perhaps a request for a pen to be supplied (or a justification for doing no writing). In the second, it merely offers information. (Although one could invent a context where it would fulfil some other function: perhaps an indignant denial that one could be held responsible for the destruction of the caretaker's carrots.)

A syllabus designed to capitalise on the learner's desire to make meaning (and, in particular, to generate new meanings) will try to ensure that forms can be as readily associated with functions as possible. On the one hand such a syllabus should make it possible to provide contexts in which the communicative import of formal features is illuminated. On the other hand it should ensure that learners are practising language in a situation where discourse rules are observed. Since the utterance *Je n'ai pas de stylo* has the function of an apology or explanation it will be learned in conjunction with other utterances which can perform this function, such as *Je n'ai pas de crayon*, *Je n'ai pas de montre*, or *J'ai oublié mon cahier*. Learners will be encouraged to precede it by *Je suis désolé(e)*, and it is likely to occur as a response to a question containing *Pourquoi...* and a negative expression. It will not simply be produced as an item in an exercise which includes other sentences with quite different functions such as *Je n'ai pas de lapin*, *Je n'ai pas de frère*, etc, since it would be

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hard to imagine connected discourse in which such a string of utterances could occur.

The need to link forms with functions may mean that the language to be learned is organised in the first instance into functional categories. This was the case in the revised OMLAC⁵ syllabuses, where wide functional categories such as 'negotiating and persuading' and 'expressing opinions and feelings' were used as the framework within which the objectives at each level were expressed as tasks, each implying a context, purpose and role. It may mean that an initial organisation into topics, as in the EMGRASS⁶ syllabuses, is preferred, with an increasing complexity of functions forming the basis of progression through the levels. Both of these schemes, in common with many others (for example, the scheme from the Lothian⁷ region in Scotland) rejected setting or situation as their organising principle. A syllabus which takes learners through a number of settings such as the ticket office, the café, the hotel, the bank, will allow only of a highly ritualised transactional use of language which will neither encourage learners to express their own feelings nor enable them to generate any language beyond learned-by-heart phrases with perhaps a few variations in vocabulary. Syllabuses setting out to embody more generalised communicative intentions are more likely to set up a consistent association of form with function. They are also more likely to afford opportunities for the affective and creative use of language.

Different GCSE syllabuses have built to a greater or lesser extent on the GOML experiments in design: in the case of MEG, for example, each topic area is accompanied by a list of appropriate, if somewhat disembodied, functions. Some other syllabuses offer a list of functions taken from *Un Niveau Seuil* but make no attempt to integrate this with tasks, topics or settings. The syllabuses are chiefly disappointing, however, in their emphasis on transactions at the expense of wishes, feelings and wider communicative intentions.

The sample examination papers surprised many teachers by their failure to build on GOML experiments in mixed skill testing and cueing communicative tasks: surely few of us can have expected that the fruit of all the time invested and expertise deployed by the examination boards would be comprehension questions asked in English. It is perhaps particularly disconcerting to note the way in which authentic materials are used as a mere pretext for trivial factual questions instead of being re-inserted into a context which would exploit their original purpose and audience. The frustration with which both syllabuses and sample papers were greeted is a measure of the expectations aroused by the GOML movement.

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GCSE: BACK TO THE FUTURE IN A SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

Malcolm Hope

The relationship between GOML and 16+ examinations clearly exercised the minds of a great many of those teachers who knew that the monolithic 16+ system with its long-deferred objectives had been one of the prime dissatisfactions which had sparked off the graded assessment schemes in the first instance. Yet there must have been widely differing views about what the relationship between GOML and 16+ should, and could, be.

Firstly, there were those who felt that the 16+ system, for all the rhetoric being expounded about it, was unlikely to change in the foreseeable future, and that the most useful contribution of graded assessment would be to provide staging-posts towards the terminus, with the prospect of a satisfactory, memorable and enjoyable journey for those who were to travel no further than the first or second inn. The coach drivers might have private reservations about the desirability of the destination, but, as their function required, concerned themselves only with the safe delivery of the passengers.

Then there were those who were optimistic that change at 16+ would indeed come about, and that the continued provision of Mode III arrangements would offer the possibility of the level 4 or level 5 of their scheme, via continuous assessment, representing the final target stage for 16+ equivalence, with control remaining on a local level and national standards being preserved by pre-standardisation and post-moderation. Alternatively, a scheme of profile reporting with records of criterion-referenced achievement might grow out of graded assessment and supplant the normative 16+.

Finally, there were others who felt that an approaching change in 16+ was likely to be determined on a national level, with a single set of uniform criteria, and therefore the perpetuation of the single-occasion summative test. With this likelihood, perhaps the best strategy of the advocates of graded assessment would be to lobby for the retention of the successful features of GOML, and to ensure that at least the principles of criterion-referencing and the promotion of assessment of communication in behavioural terms might be salvaged and built into the new system.

For the latter, the minimal consultation period and the covert manner in which the National Criteria were drawn up, together with the extreme haste in which the new syllabuses were delivered, might have been a cause for some pessimism over whether even these modest hopes could be realised. In the event, however, the debts to the graded assessment movement are acknowledged in

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much of the documentation from the SEC, (including the National Criteria for French¹ and the Examining Groups²). It is also clear from the National Criteria and from the syllabuses and support documentation issued by the Groups that the communicative approach to language teaching and learning is the theoretical framework upon which the assessment will be constructed. (Whether this statement of intent is borne out either by the choice of test-types or by the exemplars of them presented in the specimen papers is, however, open to question; this will be addressed, in part, below.)

In the remainder of this contribution, I will attempt to assess which aspects of good and successful practice of GOML have been effectively translated into GCSE and which have been omitted, and to offer a case-study example of how one school's French department³ is developing its schemes of work in the light of this. My purpose in so doing is two-fold. Firstly, it may assist colleagues in the preparation of their own schemes of work by offering points of comparison (it certainly does not claim to offer a model), and secondly, it may serve to remind colleagues that the current GCSE is not immutable, and that interested parties are still at liberty to make the scheme evolutionary.

The National Criteria and GOML

We decided that before selecting a syllabus it would be prudent to scan the National Criteria, with two purposes in mind: firstly, to attempt to determine which Examining Group's syllabus was most faithful, in our opinion, to their spirit; and secondly, to assess which planks of the communicative approach provided the supports on which the criteria were hung. Read in this light, the Criteria were not heartening. It was encouraging to see that 'practical communication' (The National Criteria: French, para. 2.1) and 'a sound base of...skills' (para.2.2) were to be the highest aims, and that the GOML notion of competence seemed to have been embraced, with the stated requirement (para.3.3.3) for a high threshold before scores could register as achievements. However, the translation of these aims and objectives into techniques of assessment seemed, to say the least, disappointing, and a lost opportunity. Insistence on discrete-skill testing, rather than an encouragement to implement integrative assessment was seen as a worrying decree, because it carried with it the strong possibility that a compartmentalised and didactic approach to teaching may result in at least as 'successful' an outcome in terms of grade achievement as a communicative approach - this, despite the authors of the Criteria declaring themselves to be sensitive to adverse backwash effects on teaching, in condemning summary, précis, dictation and prose translation (para. 6.2.4).

If 'good communicative practice' (GOML) and didactic analysis (grammar-translation) are polarities, the GCSE seemed to us to have shifted the fulcrum some way towards the former, and perhaps towards the balance-point. In crude terms, if, in the GCE/CSE system, 'bad' (= non-communicative) teaching could still lead to examination success, while 'good' (= communicative) teaching did not necessarily do so, with the GCSE Criteria, at least 'bad' teaching would fare no better than 'good'.

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This led us to consider the Criteria as an amber light. It was a signal to organise teaching in a 'GOML way', in the knowledge that success was possible and no penalty would be incurred. We saw the Criteria as neutrally disposed towards GOML practice.

It was nonetheless galling to read that while 'links with the graded tests which have so much influenced approaches to modern language teaching and examining are desirable' (para. 6.3), there was no indication of how this might be achieved in practice.

The Group syllabuses for French

The (belated!) arrival of the syllabuses (long after the time set aside by the LEA for GCSE-related INSET), the knowledge that given the size of our school (three sites and 1900+ on roll), we would be allowed to use the syllabuses of any of the England-based Groups, we set about an analysis of them with a view to selecting the one which, in our opinion, offered the closest comparison with, and greatest promotion of, the aims and thinking behind GOML, as outlined above. Another determining factor was the usefulness of the support documentation offered by the Groups, and the level of ease with which the syllabus could be accommodated into a teaching syllabus design. We were helped in this respect by a document produced by the LEA adviser which provided a comparative analysis of the various Group syllabuses. (CILT Information 40: *A Guide to GCSE: French*⁴ now also performs a similar useful function.)

The design of the teaching syllabus

The department was - and still is - heavily financially committed to two main commercial courses, *Tricolore*⁵ and *Communications*⁶. An analysis of their content and their organisational rationale convinced us that if we pursued either or both of these courses *seriatim*, pupils would not be adequately prepared for the GCSE either in the spirit or the letter, for the following briefly related reasons:

- their organisation does not sufficiently promote the communication of information/attitude gaps as an aim and method of learning (though both clearly involve communication, of sorts);
- they do not take sufficient account of contexts, psychological roles, conversational management and rules of discourse;
- there is no explicit relationship between teaching items and testing items, nor between presentation, practice and performance, as the few activities which are task-based are not satisfactorily distinguished from the facilitating activities, from the pupil's perspective;
- relatively few of the activities are genuinely mixed-skill and interactive. (It may be objected here that GCSE itself, in its present form, contains only

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discrete-skill testing in its battery, and that there is little real need for anything other than discrete-skill teaching as a preparation towards it. However, it is inherent in the communicative approach that communication can only be 'learnt' by communicating, and most real communication is interactive and mixed-skill. This awareness was, as far as we were concerned, a legacy from the experience of operational graded assessment schemes. We foresaw the unnatural compartmentalisation of language as undesirable and unhelpful towards achieving at least one of the aims of the syllabus, namely the development of 'an awareness of the nature of language and language-learning' (*National Criteria: French*, para. 2.6);

- there is, in the case of *Tricolore*, relatively little contextualised authentic material (especially audio) and much of what there is is not put to the use for which it was originally created,;
- in the case of *Communications* there is very little authentic material of any sort, and there are few, if any, communicative activities which take context and role into account and are based on plausible tasks with high face validity for the pupil;
- there is insufficient focus on the differential features of the spoken and written languages in either course. These assertions are not made with disrespect, nor to intend to discredit either of these commercial courses, both of which have made a valuable contribution to French teaching and continue to have value - not least for our own department - but it is simply the case that since the time of their writing our knowledge of communication, and in particular about the analysis of discourse, has advanced considerably, as has, thanks to GOML, our experience of managing communication in the classroom.

These perceived shortcomings made us realise that we could not depend on either or both these courses as the main agenda for our teaching in years 4 and 5, and an exhaustive survey of other available commercial courses convinced us that despite their several merits no other existing coursebook would meet our needs either.

We were thus driven to the conclusion that we would have to devise a teaching syllabus from within our own resources in the department, and that the department's existing book and materials stock would service this syllabus as support material. It was therefore necessary to design a syllabus.

The awareness within the department of the possibilities for syllabus design for the fourth and fifth year of study came from our reading of the literature on syllabus design undertaken as part of the preparation for the elaboration of a graded assessment scheme. It is worth stressing that had it not been for this, in a sense, vicarious expertise afforded by the rippling circles of GOML, we would not have felt that we could make our own decisions on syllabus design for GCSE with any degree of confidence.

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We first gave consideration to a functionally derived syllabus, i.e. one in which the functions of language were the main organisational factor. A prime attraction of a functional syllabus was that it might overcome the anticipated pupil resistance to the enforced repetition of topics which had been covered in the earlier years of study. Other advantages were the opportunity afforded by a functional approach to stress conversational management, promote role play and simulation as purposeful classroom activities, and concentrate on use rather than usage. Units of work might concentrate on a grouping of functions ('macro-functions') which reflect actual native-speaker use and which would necessarily involve the recycling of topics, contexts and roles previously encountered, and reinforcement of the transferable, generative quality of acquisition. Moving swiftly from topic to topic seemed to offer a good way of confirming whether or not an operational use of the function had been attained (as opposed to the discrete matching of a structure or two, plus some lexical items, to a discrete and unreplicated situation). This would allow revision without boredom, and with the possibility of adding increased exponents and task complexity for progress and motivation (not to mention the differentiation required for GCSE).

We came, however, to reject this approach, mainly because we were uncertain whether pupils who would ultimately succeed only at the basic/general level, or only minimally beyond, would be able to witness their progress lucidly. There was an unworthy reason also. Though we were convinced of the considerable merits of the ideal, we were daunted by the amount of original work this would entail within the department, and the likelihood of falling behind our schedule for the production of it in the ludicrously short time before the entry of pupils into the GCSE classroom. (As things turned out, perhaps we were unwise to worry unduly over this, as we fell behind schedule in any case!)

The narrow setting/situational approach was rejected also as it seemed the least reliable in producing sufficient evidence (especially with constraints of time and large class-size) that pupils were able to generate, as opposed simply to contingently reproduce, the language they had acquired.

We would have liked to explore the feasibility of constructing a modular syllabus which might include some element of teaching the target language for special purposes. Groups of pupils might be composed according to their orientations rather than their hitherto perceived ability, and it might be possible to achieve the GCSE objectives by teaching a large common core to all groups and then have them opt for various - perhaps pre-vocational - units or modules, which would allow them some measure of self-determination within their course. This appealing notion was reluctantly rejected because it was feared that the scale was beyond the capacity of a single (albeit) large department, within the timescale available between planning and delivery. The idea of collaboration with other schools over such a venture was regretfully set aside also, for the same reason, compounded by the fact that we had opted for an examination Group outside our 'natural' area. (This was only one among many frustrations which caused us to rue the DES's refusal to delay the implementation of GCSE by one school year.)

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We lighted upon a topic-based syllabus as the best option which circumstances afforded. We felt that this organisation would make for units of work which were, on the one hand, wide enough to avoid the 'gobbetting' pitfall of the narrow situational approach, but broad enough to permit us to:

- foster, to some extent, a 'project' or 'enquiry-based' approach to study;
- re-cycle previous work in wider contexts, and with a just emphasis on functional operations of language;
- maximise the usefulness of our current book and materials stock.

There was also a major organisational consideration which influenced the choice. Over the previous two years the department had been moving from fine-setting to a policy of broader ability banding (prompted both by ideological and pragmatic timetabling reasons), and it was important that a choice of GCSE teaching syllabus should allow this policy to continue and prosper. We feel that a topic-based syllabus allows the course to have a broad common core, with differentiation achieved by depth of study within each unit of work, rather than breadth, and by the complexity (and skill bias) of tasks rather than by the pace of movement through the course.

Thus the units of work are organised so that groups of all abilities proceed at the same pace through a course, using a common bank of materials, access to the same range of textbooks, and with many of the classroom activities in common.

The available agenda for each unit is long enough to stretch the most able pupils and yet contains sufficient activities to give the least able a sense of achievement and satisfaction, and the opportunity to chart the relationship between their class activities and the GCSE objectives.

In the development of our units of work (*Unités*), we followed the listing of topics in the Group's syllabus (MEG) extensively, though not slavishly. The *Defined Content Syllabus*⁷ specifies twelve topics for basic/higher level, and four topics for higher level only. We decided that, in order to preserve our unified approach, we would disseminate the four higher level topics among the others, by devising activities within those other units which, if done, would ensure that those particular objectives could be met.

The devising of an 'Unité'

We assessed the likely volume of work that each topic would require within the overall time available, and we calculated that we could devote, on average, six weeks, and this was to include some element of assessment at the end of each unit. This would safely allow for all units to be completed in time for the GCSE oral test (assumed, in the absence of information from the Group, to be scheduled for April-May of the fifth year), with a margin for a fall-back position in case of lessons lost through the infelicitous fall of occasional days, sports days, work experience, field trips, and the like, and also for the 'breathers' from

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the programme of work to do something more spontaneous in the occasional lesson...a film, a record).

Each of our home-produced *Unités* would have the following contents and features, set out on paper for pupils to keep in their possession:

- a contents-page which lists the *objectifs* for the *Unité* (based on the Group's syllabus objectives, sometimes amended, and always re-written in French (Appendix A provides an example for *Unité A*);
- a progress-sheet listing activities completed;
- a checklist of language functions in which the work of the unit intends to make the pupils operationally competent;
- a list of key structures, without mastery of which the objectives are unlikely to be met;
- a vocabulary list.

It is worth dwelling briefly on the reason for amending the objectives as set out for each topic in the Group's syllabus. The Group's listings are predicated upon a testing syllabus, whereas we were constructing a teaching syllabus. (GOML experience had taught us to be careful to distinguish between the two.) In the case of *Unité A* for example (Appendix A), the objectives in the Group's list do not include reference to the appearance, temperament, personality etc of friends and well-known people, but we felt it desirable to include this in the teaching, for two reasons: firstly, the increased variety of content allows the learner to demonstrate whether language use can be sufficiently transferred from one area to another (the prime importance of generative competence has been stressed earlier); and secondly, the topic would otherwise lack the dimension of the written word for reading purposes (we could then have recourse to teenage magazines, for example, where such descriptions of people abound), as there are relatively few instances in usage where parents and siblings are described in such a way.

In order to draw up these documents, we began with the objectives and, using the Group's listing of functions and settings as a guide, tried to determine what functions, psychological roles, settings, grammatical structures and exponents would be likely to emerge, if French teenagers and their interlocutors were to realise the linguistic objectives in actuality. These were then plotted on to a checklist which would form a Teacher's Guide. (Appendix B provides an example of one such sheet for *Unité A*.)

We then set about assigning class and homework activities which might help achieve each of the objectives in turn, at each putative level of difficulty from basic to, where appropriate, higher level (part 2). It was at this stage that we had to have a constant eye on a global strategy for our teaching. There was a danger that what emerged would be a number of disconnected activities which did not represent a clear pathway, but rather an overgrown tangle of items

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where teaching and testing were muddled and the pupils were left clueless as to the ultimate purpose of the activity upon which they were engaged. A parallel anxiety on our part surrounds the use of the fast-growing publishers' lists of 'skill' books, pair-work books and 'practice' books. We have found several of these to be valuable assets (much GOML experience is detectable in their construction), but they must be used circumspectly. There is a danger that over-reliance on them will obscure the teaching agenda and blur the awareness of language as a rule-governed activity, and that competence gained from them will be a tune from the pianola. Wooed by their attractiveness, there is a chance that we shall attempt to practise what has not been taught, test what has not been practised.

We therefore devised a rigorous scheme by which any invented or 'found' item is allocated according to its rightful position in the tri-partite teaching sequence:

PRESENTATION EXPLOITATION/PRACTICE/PRE-COMMUNICATION COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

The PRESENTATION stage is that in which new work is introduced in the form of examples of the realisation of a particular objective by native speakers or writers.

The EXPLOITATION stage is the practice, assimilation and acquisition stage, in which the learner gets to grips with the linguistic features contained or implied by the presentation, to the level of mastery.

The COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES stage is the performance opportunities in which the pupil demonstrates his/her competence in reaching the objective, or, if not, the case for remedial work.

This sequence is shown more fully in the document produced by the department (Appendix C).

To begin with, the work was done in workshop sessions in which members of the department who would be teaching a GCSE group, and others who were able to make the time available, scanned our existing materials, notably *Tricolore 3*, *4A*, *4B*, *Communications*, and various other reach-me-down course books or practice books which the department holds as class sets for occasional use, together with a large array of inspection copies and single purchases which, if they proved in line with our need, could be ordered (again, as single sets for occasional use), from the enhanced capitation allowance for GCSE. Each item which seemed to be pertinent to the *Unité* being prepared was allocated a place in one or other of the three stages of the sequence.

It was thus possible to see which unit objectives would not adequately be met by our existing resources, and for which we would have to devise our own materials, again bearing in mind a particular stage of the teaching sequence.

The resulting materials were then categorised and, in the case of written material of our own devising, printed by the school's reprographic service, where high-quality off-set litho reproduction is available (a *sine qua non*, in our view, for the success of this whole approach to resourcing). The categorisation

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system was devised in such a way that the course (like all GOML schemes) could be evolutionary, and that new items could be added by individuals as well as by the working party at any time, but in such a way that they could be made easily accessible to all members of the department. An explanation of the categorisation system was prepared by the department (Appendix C).

Naturally, not all the devised items involve printed sheets. Some comprise outline scenarios for recordings to be made with the assistant (and/or press-ganged exchange visitors and the small number of bi-lingual pupils we have on our roll). These scenarios, in the best traditions of GOML, would be mapped out with their psychological roles and their settings identified, but without scripting, so that they could become quasi-authentic, or in some cases wholly authentic items.

Some suggested activities are broader in scope. Project work is a suitable activity for the productive outcome of some *Unités*, as it allows the communicative activity to have a clear sense of audience as well as purpose. It was suggested, for example, that various objectives connected with schools in *Unité D (Au Lycée)* could be combined into a video programme made by pupils, in school, about their own school, and this was successfully done. The class was divided into small working groups, each of which planned and elaborated a script for a single aspect (using various inputs from course books) - daily routine, location and layout of buildings, etc, - and these elements were brought together on a half-hour tape. The camera was borrowed from a nearby College of Education and location shooting was done by releasing pupils from lesson time as and when they felt they were ready. The (unedited) result was shown at an Open Evening. The practical and purposeful nature of the activity was motivating, and a primary benefit was the opportunity to combine written work (preparation and scripting) with oral performance. Some camera-shy pupils restricted themselves to an audio version. In another *Unité*, extensive display work resulted from a similar enquiry-based approach to the topic of local amenities. If a particular teacher finds that these activities could not be managed, for whatever reason, then all is not lost, as there are other items in the bank which cover the same objectives in a different way.

Other items are simply teachers' notes on such things as ideas for games, a record of pertinent extracts from school broadcasts, or notes for suggested exploitation of realia. (The department has accumulated a large collection of French teenage magazines by organising periodic collections of English magazines, newspapers, comics, and other printed items culled from parental workplaces, and then exchanging these against similar collections of French material gathered by our link schools in France. The collections are transported on the coaches at exchange visit time, thus providing an authentic and virtually free resource bank. As a bonus the collecting is motivational; it abets the complicity between the pupils and the objects of their work.)

When the lists of items are sufficiently complete to facilitate six weeks of teaching, the *Unité* can be considered operable, though, in a sense, it is never finished. In time, feedback will dictate that we delete poor items, and other new ones will be found to replace them, from the sweatshops of our cottage industry.

GCSE: Back to the future in a school department

The class teacher is then at liberty to select appropriate items for the group which he/she teaches and can, owing to the choice available, tailor the level of complexity and difficulty to the needs and expectations of the pupils.

Some items are ear-marked as testing items. They are thus designated basic/higher 1/higher 2 (according to our estimates based on the specimen papers made available by the Group) and are single-skill (in line with the state-of-the-art of GCSE), and are all taken from the 'Communicative activities' (stage 3) section. They can thus 'sample' the pupils' competence and the results will accumulate as a profile of performance. This profile will form the agenda for the negotiation, between pupil and teacher, of recommended levels of candidate entry, and they will also represent objective evidence for the inquisitive parent. The teacher will be basing professional judgement, not primarily on intuition, but on evidence supplied by tasks which closely resemble the assessment tools of GCSE. Additionally, the pupils will be lucid about their achievement in relation to the summative examination which faces them. The unit tests are therefore summative for each unit, but formative for the GCSE as a whole.

Administrative matters

The scheme of work gave rise to the necessity for a complete re-think over the storage of materials within the department and by pupils.

Paper resources are printed and stored in stout cardboard boxes according to their *Unité* letter, tapes are made on short-run cassettes for ease of retrieval. Pupils are issued, in year 4, with an A4 vinyl ring-binder which must last them the duration of the course or be replaced at their own expense. A4 paper therefore replaces exercise books for written work, which is filed together with the printed sheets for the *Unité* (these are kept by pupils and not returned to the department). When a particular *Unité* has been completed, the work is removed and kept either at home or in school, at the teacher's discretion, in an improvised sugar-paper folder, for later revision.

The pupils are each given a Course Guide - a seven-page booklet, produced by the department, which seeks to translate the assessment framework, grading system, levels of entry and the like, into terms which the readers will understand (not an easy task!). The booklet also aims to explain the methodology of the course in jargon-free terminology. The nature of the foreign language as a performance subject, where the learner bears a large part of the responsibility for progress, the relationship between knowledge about the language and competence in it, the relationship between the spoken and the written modes, are all impressed upon the pupils. All this is intended to help them grasp the central notion that our designed course and its activities form the spine of their work, and the textbook is a material support.

The issue of a textbook, however, is seen as of continuing importance, for two reasons. Firstly, there seems to be a psychological dependence on the pupils' part for a book as a comforter, and it can of course be a more ample source of reference than we can provide, at least in the short term, but also if, for whatever reason, the home-produced course fails to meet its deadlines (and it frequently has done!), the textbook is available to fall back on as an emergency

GCSE: Back to the future in a school department

generator - not the latest model, but good enough to keep the lights burning dimly.

Back to the future

The author has been present at various local and national gatherings of colleagues at which the current GCSE proposals have been debated critically. The venues differ but the voices are similar. Why must the foreign language seem, as so often in the past, the 'truculent' exception which cannot allow an element of continuous coursework assessment? (This is a bitter irony, considering the pioneering work through which GOML has contributed to expertise in techniques of assessment based on classroom research.) Why, if the mastery of objectives is the criterion for the award of grades, cannot candidates who can satisfy this criterion before their fifth year be allowed to demonstrate their achievement by, for example, taking their basic/general level tests?

The principle of 'assess when ready', and the concomitant focus it provides on realistic self-assessment by pupils has been a fundamental benefit of GOML; a benefit which has extended beyond the realm of assessment and may without exaggeration be said to have altered the whole pupil-teacher relationship for the better. Its sacrifice in GCSE seems needless and retrograde. While it may be the case that assessment literally 'on demand' may not be operable on a national scale (unless testing gives way to assessment), there seems no justification in restricting entry to age 16+.

The decision to represent the highest GCSE achievement by the grade nomenclature 'A' was clearly outside the influence of those who drafted the French criteria, but a point they may well have made and lost is that the GOML notion of rising treads of performance up the *éducation permanente* stairway should have been preserved by inverting the grade lettering so as to make 'A' the first and lowest mark of achievement. A future revision of 'A' level grading could then have tidily followed on, allowing also for the intermediary 'AS' to be encompassed.

In these three respects, and also in respect of the over-transactional nature of the objectives (outlined above), the current GCSE has failed to capitalise upon the proven testbed research of GOML, and it is to be hoped that the sense of dissatisfaction which GOML practitioners feel with GCSE Mark I will express itself positively and assist in bringing about a GCSE Mark II which will subsume more of the tried and tested features of GOML. We shall then, in a sense, go back to the future.

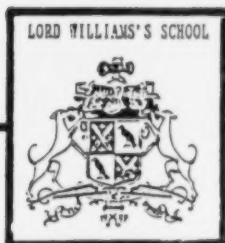
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Appendix A



français

UNITÉ A

On se présente.....

OBJECTIFS: A la fin de cette
UNITÉ tu pourras:

- Obj. 1. - te présenter à des Français,
jeunes et adultes. 
- Obj. 2. - parler de ta famille, tes amis,
et des gens que tu connais. 
- Obj. 3. - donner tes opinions sur des gens
qui sont célèbres.  
- Obj. 4. - comprendre des Français lorsqu'ils
se présentent; comprendre ce qu'ils
disent à propos de leur famille,
et comprendre des gens célèbres
lorsqu'ils parlent d'eux-mêmes.  
- Obj. 5. (H) - écrire en français pour décrire ta
famille, tes amis, et pour donner
tes impressions sur tes stars
préférées. 

français

fiche du professeur - 1 -résumé du programme

UNITE A

Appendix B

GCSE: Back to the future in a school department

THÈME	RÈLES	SITUATIONS	FONCTIONS	NOTIONS	STRUCTURES/ GRAMMAIRE
Ma famille et d'autres gens que je connais, ou qui sont célèbres.	OUTLINE: student as him/herself in first or early encounter with French peers, adults (or authority figures) (student introducing him/herself on audio and/or video tape for contacts in French school) [PRACTICE: - student as 'authority' figure e.g. radio/TV show presenter - student as radio/TV show interviewee]	1. First encounter in Fr. or E. home, or public meeting-place 2. Encounter between interviewer/ee in street 3. Encounter with your friend's/pen friend's family 4. letter-writing - first/early contact with Fr. speaker. [PRACTICE: as T.V. show contestant]	- socialising - introducing yourself - describing attributes/ characteristics of people - enquiring about attributes/characteristics of people - expressing opinions - describing, and enquiring about likes and dislikes (aim for all in all modes)	- personality traits - relationships - number - age - jobs/occupations - leisure activities (en passant) - location - distance (briefly) - time: frequency/ duration - nationality	- adjectives - possessives - negatives - direct object pronouns - venir + de - go fait que - adv. phrases of time - prepositions of place - adj. of nationality

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Appendix C

français

GCSE FRANÇAIS

Teacher's Notes.

The Organisation of Resources.

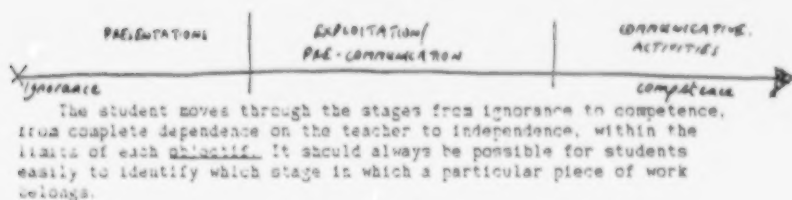
Resources are arranged in UNITs which are lettered A-P and are identical to the TOPICS of the Midland Examining Group Defined Content Syllabus. These UNITs form the core of the work and are taught consecutively.

Each UNIT has a list of Objectifs which have to be aimed at, and mastered as achievements, by students. They match their progress against these Objectifs, which are set out on the title page of the student's booklet for each UNIT.

The Sequence of teaching sheets list the resources for each UNIT, divided into Objectifs, and listed according to their appropriate place in the teaching sequence:

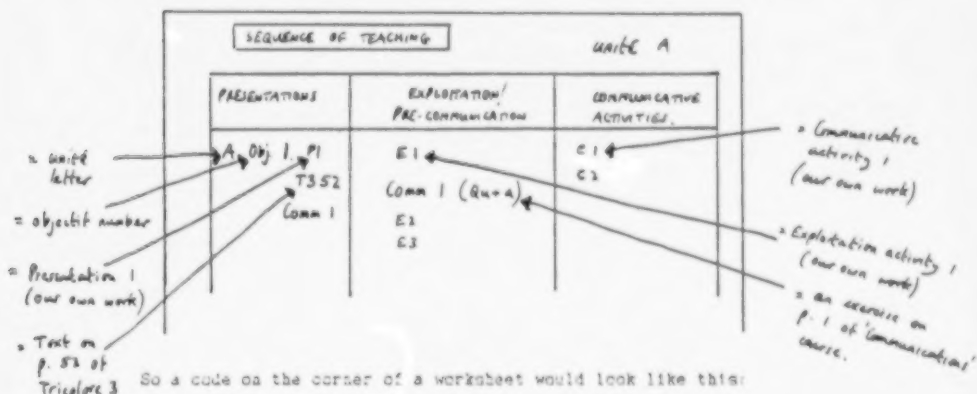
PRESENTATIONS	EXPLOITATION / PRE-COMMUNICATION	COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES
This is <u>new work</u> which provides <u>examples</u> or <u>models</u> of how 'objectifs' are realised by French speakers. This stage involves class activities such as:- - intensive listening - intensive reading (perhaps with OHP's / worksheets in order to <u>focus</u> the listening / reading). This stage is <u>receptive</u> for the student	This stage <u>analyses</u> the new items of vocabulary, structure, idiom, grammar, intonation, pronunciation, syntax etc. found in the presentations (concentrating on what is most important in natural usage for each 'objectif') - and practices them intensively. Class activities will include: - worksheets - teacher explanation - formal grammar teaching - games, competitions - rote-learning - vocab learning - mechanical exercises - 'process' writing - 'comprehension' questions - gap-filling.	This is the <u>productive</u> stage where pupils demonstrate whether or not they have mastered what has been taught, by doing tasks which resemble the tasks they heard / read being accomplished in the <u>presentations</u>. They are as close as possible to 'real-life' language use. Some of these tasks are singled out as <u>assessments</u> + results are recorded. The previous stage is of no value unless it leads to this one.

GCSE: Back to the future in a school department



The Classification system

Example:



D Obj 3 E4 ABC

indicating that it belongs to Unit D (School, Au Lycée), objectif 3. (Travelling to and from school), and the exercise is useful for exploiting and practicing the objective, and that it is the 4th item of a similar nature, and that it was made by teacher ABC (so that we know who to approach for advice about using it in class).

All resources should be categorised in this way. It may appear cumbersome to begin with, but once we get used to it, it should:

- avoid unnecessary duplication, and
- provide a quick check as to whether a particular item we want to teach has already been resourced.

It will be necessary to add, in pen or pencil, the inventory code for any new resources which we add to the course. This has to be done on the master copy in the resources room.

COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES

Liz Roselman

Developing communicative activities

SETTING REALISTIC OR PURPOSEFUL TASKS

One of the most important aspects of communication is that people only communicate when there is a reason for doing so. Some of the main reasons why we communicate or use language are to exchange information, to get things done, to set up or maintain relationships with people. It therefore follows that communicative tasks should be based on these functions.

Most people's daily lives (apart from school or work) consist of a mixture of everyday survival activities, such as shopping and using transport; interacting with people to make arrangements such as calling plumbers and banks; reading the paper to see what is on TV or to check the weather forecast; reading a magazine to check a horoscope or enjoy some light entertainment; making social arrangements to go out or see people. These then are what could be called realistic or purposeful tasks. Some may be inappropriate for a young learner, but most will see some point in learning how to perform these 'real' activities. They can see the language being used to perform real tasks.

Some examples of purposeful tasks:

Shopping Task (reading and writing)

The worksheet shows a fridge or cupboard with various items of food in it. There is also a recipe for a particular dish or menu. The learner must read the recipe, look at the foods in the fridge, and then write out a shopping list of all the items she/he will need to buy.

Travel Task (reading and listening)

The worksheet shows a train timetable with destinations, departure times and platform numbers. During a wait at the station an announcement is made about some changes to the published timetable. The learner must listen to the announcements and change the timetable accordingly.

Making an arrangement Task (speaking, listening, reading and writing)

Communicative strategies and techniques

This is a pair-work task. Each partner has a diary with certain commitments filled in for different mornings, afternoons and evenings. They want to try to do two or three different activities, perhaps go to the cinema, to the skating rink or to the market. One partner can suggest a time and day and the other has to check to see whether that slot is available. When they find a mutually available time, they both fill in the new engagement in their diaries.

Deciding what to watch on TV (listening and reading)

The worksheet shows part of a TV guide. There are three different films on TV tonight that the learner is interested in. The times overlap so that it is not possible to watch all of them. Listen to a film critic on the radio review the films. If the critic's advice was to be followed, which film should not be missed? What are the main comments about the other two films?

One of the features of 'real' or 'realistic' tasks tends to be an integration of different skills; thus the above consist usually of a mixture of speaking, listening, reading and writing, although in some cases one of the skills may be more dominant than the others. It is worth setting mixed-skill tasks for classroom practice, even though the public examinations generally use discrete skill tests. The reasons for this have more to do with ease of administration and marking than authenticity.

INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITIES

In most genuine communications, particularly those concerned with the exchange of information, the initiator of the dialogue or activity does not know something or wants to find out something that the listener or provider of information does know or has the answer to. In other words there is an information gap between them that is bridged by communication.

Instead of a piece of factual information, the 'gap' might consist of an opinion that one person holds and the other wants to find out about.

One of the most effective ways to practise these types of exchanges is to set up pair-work activities, where each partner has complementary sets of information. In real life there is normally an 'outcome' to a dialogue unless it serves a purely social function. If the dialogue took place in a hotel and the task was to book a room, the 'outcome' would be whether or not a room was booked, and if so: What is it like? How much does it cost? What is the room number? Therefore these activities also work best if there is an 'outcome' that may be expressed in writing or an explanation of some kind to show that information has been accurately conveyed.

In real situations of this kind the outcome can be extremely variable. There is always an area of unpredictability which is a feature of genuine communication. There may be an item on a café or restaurant menu which turns out to be 'off' that day or to have increased in price; the train you intended to catch has been cancelled or delayed; the person you stop in the street to ask

Communicative strategies and techniques

the way is also a foreigner. Some of these uncertainties should also be built into the tasks to prepare learners to cope with the unexpected.

Some examples of information gap activities:

School subjects

Partner A might be a French or German pupil and partner B a British pupil. Each is given a timetable showing the subjects studied, and the various starting and finishing times of the school day. There could also be an indication about which subjects each likes and dislikes.

The task is to find out what subjects the other person studies, and what the day's routine looks like. Then find out which subjects the other likes and dislikes.

The outcome could be expressed by each partner being given a blank timetable with just the names of the days of the week at the top of six columns. The timetable has to be filled in with the information given by the partner. Only when the task is finished should the timetables be compared to see whether the information has been accurately passed on.

Talking about future plans

Partner A has decided to leave school at 16 and get a job (this could be specified).

Partner B is going to stay at school for at least another year, and probably go on to college or university.

The task is to discuss these two plans with each person giving reasons to justify the decision. There could be an element of trying to persuade the other to change the decision.

The outcome here is harder to express in a written form but could consist of each partner reporting back to the teacher the other's intentions with an explanation of their reasons for this.

Lost property

Partner A is a tourist who has lost something and goes to the police station to see if it has been handed in.

Partner B works in the lost property office at the police station and has a list of everything that was handed in on the day in question.

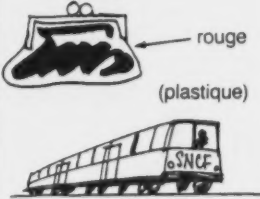
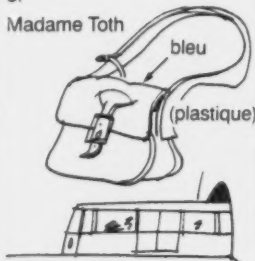
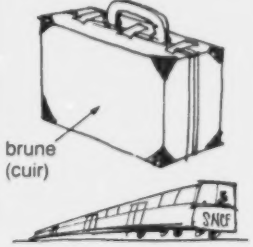
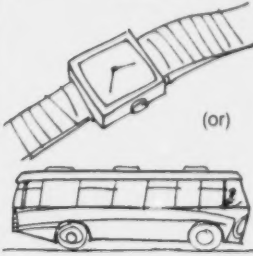
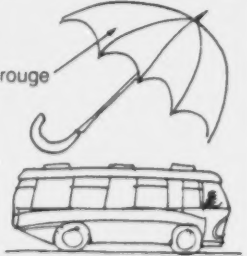
Partner A will need to describe the lost property in order for Partner B to establish whether or not it has been handed in.

The outcome of this task is whether or not partner A gets the item back.
(See *Tu parles* task 12 *On cherche un objet perdu*.)

On cherche un objet perdu

A12

You are a tourist visiting France. You have lost something valuable and go to the police station to see if anyone has found it. The pictures show you what you have lost, and where you think you lost it.

1. Mademoiselle Sebag 	2. Mr. Howells 	3. Madame Toth 
4. Madame Moussa 	5. Monsieur Ameur 	6. Madame Guéras 

Copy out the grid below. In the appropriate box, put a tick if the lost object has been found and a cross if it has not.

EXAMPLE						
1. ☒	2. ☐	3. ☐	4. ☐	5. ☐	6. ☐	

On cherche un objet perdu

B12

You work in a French police station. Your partner is a tourist who has lost something valuable. The written information tells you what has been handed in to the police and where it was found.

Vendredi le 2 mai – Objets trouvés			
objet trouvé	couleur	autres détails	lieu trouvé
montre	bleue	plastique	boulevard Leclerc
montre	-	or	car
parapluie	vert	-	rue du 4 septembre
passeport	-	français	train
passeport	-	britannique	taxi
porte-monnaie	rouge	plastique	train
porte-monnaie	noir	cuir	taxi
porte-monnaie	vert	cuir	avenue Foch
sac	blanc	plastique	rue des Héros
sac	noir	cuir	métro
valise	noire	plastique	taxi
valise	rouge	plastique	bus
valise	brune	cuir	train

Copy out the grid below. In the appropriate box, put a tick if the lost object has been found and a cross if it has not.

EXAMPLE	1. ☒	2. ☐	3. ☐	4. ☐	5. ☐	6. ☐
---------	--	-----------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------------

Communicative strategies and techniques

Talking about the news

Partner A has read in the French press about a dramatic news item.

Partner B has only heard about it and would like Partner A to give more information about the incident.

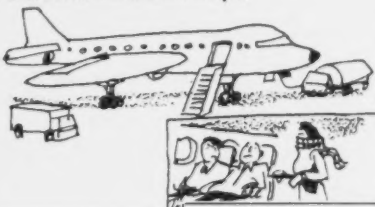
(See *Tu Parles Encore* task 16ii *On explique les actualités internationales*.)

On explique les actualités internationales

A16(ii)

Vous êtes un(e) Anglais(e) en France. Vous avez entendu parler d'une actualité importante et vous voulez avoir plus de détails. Votre partenaire est un(e) ami(e) français(e) qui a lu les journaux et est plus au courant. Les images ainsi que les titres des articles vous montrent les événements.

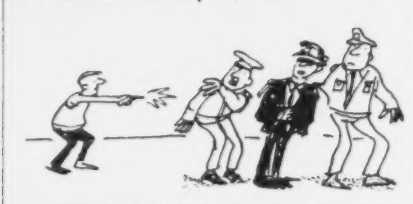
1. Détournement dramatique



2. Enlèvement du fils d'un milliardaire



3. Attentat contre le président



Copiez le tableau ci-dessous. Dans la colonne appropriée, écrivez des détails sur chaque événement.

1. Le détournement	2. L'enlèvement	3. L'attentat
Quand?	Qui?	Président?
Compagnie?	Quand?	Quand?
Combien de pirates?	Où?	Comment?
Combien de passagers?	Enlevé comment?	Morts/blessés?
On exige?	On exige?	Coupable arrêté?

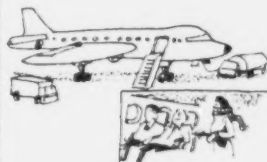
On explique les
actualités internationales

B16(II)

Vous êtes français(e). Votre partenaire est un(e) ami(e) anglais(e) qui a entendu parler d'un événement important, mais il/elle ne sait pas les détails. Vous avez lu les articles ci-dessous et vous êtes au courant.

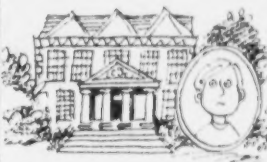
1. Détournement dramatique

Les détournements d'avion augmentent d'année en année. Maintenant c'est le tour de l'Italie. Un Boeing 747 de la compagnie Al Italia a été détourné et a dû atterrir à Istamboul ce matin. Les trois pirates de l'air à bord, armés de mitraillettes et de grenades, exigent la libération de Mario Sporetti, chef d'un groupe de l'extrême droite qui a été récemment emprisonné. Jusqu'ici personne n'a été blessé, mais on est dans la plus vive inquiétude en ce qui concerne le sort des 237 passagers.



2. Enlèvement du fils d'un milliardaire

Guy Ross, fils unique du 'roi du pétrole' Joseph Ross, a été enlevé cet après-midi à Dallas. Il était en route pour son école, conduit par le chauffeur de la famille. Les kidnappeurs ont envoyé une note à M. Ross pour demander une rançon de 5 millions de dollars. Jusqu'ici la police ignore où se trouve leur cachette et il paraît très probable que M. Ross va répondre à leur demande.



3. Attentat contre le président

Le président de la Bettravie vient d'échapper à la mort encore une fois. Ce matin, vers 11 heures, il sortait du palais dans la capitale pour se rendre à une réunion. Tout d'un coup, il s'est trouvé face à face avec un homme armé qui a tiré quatre fois sur lui. L'assassin a été tout de suite arrêté, mais le garde du corps, qui s'était vite placé entre le président et l'assassin, est à présent à l'hôpital dans un état grave. Quant au président, il est arrivé à sa réunion avec seulement une heure de retard. Jusqu'à présent on ignore le mobile de l'attentat.



Vocabulaire

augmenter

atterrir

la libération

l'extrême droite

le sort

to increase

to land

the release

the extreme right (in politics)

the fate

la cachette

tirer

le garde du corps

dans un état grave

le mobile

the hiding place

to fire

body guard

in a critical condition

the motive

Communicative strategies and techniques

INTRODUCING AND PRACTISING GRAMMAR IN A CONTEXT OF USE

For real communication to take place, the learner must be able to do more than utter a few set phrases. These may be valuable at the start of the learning programme or in a survival course as they can enable someone to get by in a very limited number of situations and transactions. This may be quite motivating for some young learners. However, they do not allow the learner to generate a wide variety of different and new meanings. The learner will have no linguistic autonomy if some of the basic structures of the language have not been understood and mastered.

In a communicative teaching programme, the structures are introduced in contexts when and where they are needed to allow a particular task or activity to be carried out.

When setting tasks to practise grammar you need to ask yourself: 'When do we actually use the imperfect tense, the future tense, indirect object pronouns, prepositions or adverbs? What would be useful or interesting contexts where there could be no ambiguity as to the role and meaning of the structure?' If you can find a context where the learner needs to use the structure in order to carry out a particular task the battle is half won.

Examples of tasks that practise grammar in contexts of use:

THE IMPERFECT TENSE

We use the imperfect tense to describe the way that things were or used to be. A useful way of introducing or practising it is to provide two contrasting pictures or sets of pictures, showing how things were at a particular time or era of the past and how they are now. (History departments might be able to help you out here with slide sets based on social history.)

These might be:

Transport then and now: How did people travel? How long did different journeys take? Was it comfortable and convenient?

Clothing then and now: What people used to wear? Was the clothing attractive and comfortable? What materials were there? How did people wash their clothing? Were there machines? What were the differences in male and female fashion?

Schooling then and now: Who went to school? What sort of things did they learn? What were the buildings like? What were the teachers like? How much did they earn?

CONTRASTING THE IMPERFECT AND THE PERFECT TENSES.

To teach the difference between the perfect and imperfect tenses sound sequences can be used very effectively. Noises of people singing, whistling, vacuuming, hammering, talking, drinking, driving along, watching TV,

Communicative strategies and techniques

listening to the radio, playing the piano and so on, can be interrupted by sirens, bangs, crashes, explosions, bells ringing, and screams. Learners can speculate on what someone was doing and then what they think happened.

THE FUTURE TENSE

We use the future tense to make predictions (for example in horoscopes), to make promises, to make threats and to indicate our intentions or resolutions for the future.

Provide a list of poor behaviour that someone was guilty of last term or last year:

I was lazy
I never did my homework
I used to get to school late
I didn't listen to the teachers
I chatted in class
I was rude to my parents
I ate lots of sweets and put on weight
I went to bed late every night
I never cleaned my teeth
I never helped around the house

For a presentation of this as a new language item, you could also provide a list of resolutions. If it is a practice activity, ask the learners to make up a list of resolutions for that person; for example:

This year....
I'm going to work really hard
I'll do my homework every night
I'll get to school early every day
I'll help with the housework
I'll be nice to my parents

ACTIVITY TO PRACTISE PREPOSITIONS

Give the learners a picture of a study bedroom containing the obvious items of furniture but with lots of extra items in it like a torch, a jar of coffee, a calculator, a dictionary, a tennis racket, and a towel. The situation is that members of your family or a friend who has come to stay with you keep wanting to borrow things. Explain where the different items are; for example:

My calculator's on the desk by the lamp.
My tennis racket is behind the door.
My English dictionary is on the bookshelf under the French dictionary.

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ACTIVITIES TO PRACTISE INDIRECT OBJECT PRONOUNS

Ask the learners to summarise a recent episode of any currently popular TV soap opera that they have seen. Ask them to explain who said what to whom, or gave something to somebody or phoned somebody. The account could be oral or in the form of a written summary for someone who missed that particular episode.

Ask everyone to write down five possible presents. Then give them a scenario:

They have been invited to a royal wedding / the christening of a famous couple's baby / a film star's birthday party / a rock star's Christmas party.

They are being interviewed by the press:

Excuse me...what are you giving them/him/her?

They must decide which of the five things they originally wrote down they are giving to each person and explain that to the Press with a brief explanation for the (perhaps somewhat bizarre) choice of gift.

GIVING LEARNERS A SENSE OF PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT

Many of the examples discussed so far rely on an appeal to the learner's **personal** involvement. Activities in which learners have a sense of personal involvement are usually successful as they acknowledge each learner as an individual who is interesting and whose opinion is valued. The sorts of activities that do this well are surveys, interviews and questionnaires.

Surveys or questionnaires of up to twenty questions can be provided to glean information, likes and dislikes, preferences and attitudes on a very wide range of subjects. If you then take the surveys and work out some 'results' on the findings, most learners are fairly intrigued to hear what the majority of their class likes, dislikes or thinks about various things.

FOOD AND DRINK

(It is best to provide a list of items of food and drink before doing this activity.)

- (1) What is your favourite hot drink?
- (2) What is your favourite cold drink?
- (3) What is your favourite hot food?
- (4) What is your favourite cold food?
- (5) What is your favourite type of sandwich?
- (6) Do you eat breakfast? (sometimes/daily/never)
- (7) Do you eat lunch? (sometimes/daily/never)
- (8) Do you eat tea?
- (9) Do you eat supper?
- (10) Do you eat meat?
- (11) Do you eat fresh fruit?
- (12) Do you eat sweets?

Communicative strategies and techniques

SCHOOL

- (1) What is your favourite subject?
- (2) What do you think is the most important subject?
- (3) What is the least important subject?
- (4) Do you think homework is important?
- (5) Do you do homework? (sometimes/daily/never)
- (6) Do you prefer a school which has a uniform? (yes/no/don't know)
- (7) Do you prefer teachers who are strict? (yes/no/don't know)
- (8) Do you prefer school dinner or a packed lunch?
- (9) Do you prefer examinations or continuous assessment?
- (10) Do you want to stay on at school after you're 16?

The filling-in of forms and identity cards also provides activities where learners can give real information about themselves and feel personally involved in the lesson.

USING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

Genuine communication involves the use of real language: that is obtainable in magazines, newspapers, broadcasts, brochures, guides, radio broadcasts and realia of all kinds from the country. Most of these are relatively easy to obtain through tourist offices, personal visits and contacts. However, the more challenging aspect of using them lies in thinking up interesting ways of exploiting the materials and fitting them into the language programme.

It is obviously possible to write a series of questions in English about them, but there are more communicative ways to exploit them.

Some examples of integrating authentic materials into the language programme:

PERSONAL COLUMNS

Write a description of someone who is seeking a companion. Reproduce a selection of ads from the personal column and get the learners to find a suitable match for them. They could then write an introductory letter from the character to their selected partner. Everyone in the class could then write an ad for themselves and produce a whole personal ads column.

This is a good activity for using adjectives to describe both physical and psychological characteristics. (See Dialogue - *Petites Annonces* from *20 Ans* magazine.)

DIALOGUE

— ENTRE NOUS, ON SE DIT TOUT —

Petites annonces

J'ai 16 ans et des l'an prochain, j'aimerais me lancer dans le stylisme. Aussi, je recherche garçons ou filles, ayant d'amples connaissances et des conseils à me donner sur le stylisme. J'attends avec impatience votre courrier, pour discuter.
Christine Weibel
11, rue des Choux,
Fleury 67590
Schweighouse
s/Moder.

Salut, je suis une jeune fille française de 18 ans, habitant Genève qui aimerait bien correspondre avec d'autres jeunes gens de 16 à 20 ans partageant mes hobbies qui sont la natation, la planche à voile, la mode et la bonne musique. Écrivez nombreux et en français car je ne connais encore pas assez les autres langues !
Elodie Cassels 250
rue des Payards,
1290 Versoix,
Genève.

J'ai 22 ans, folle de Paris, adore les 501. Passionnée de stylisme. Craque pour Jean-Paul Gaultier, aime la photo noir et blanc. Ambitions créer des vêtements. Fan de Sade, Curiosity Killed The Cat, The Smiths. Désire avoir des ami(e)s clean sur Paris, Toulouse, Bordeaux. Joindre photo.
Nina El Ibrahimy
4, rue A. Messager,
64000 Pau.

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J'ai 16 ans adorerais correspondre avec boys and girls de tous pays. J'aime Prince, Sting, Bowie, écrire et faire des photos.
Celine Gales
811, chemin du Gailnier, 06140
Venice.

Je suis Grecque et j'ai 16 ans. Je cherche une correspondante 16-18 ans de n'importe quelle région de France avec qui correspondre en français.
Marie Mousakis
Smyrnis 9, Samos
83100, Grèce.

Je recherche des correspondante(s) vivant en Italie, Espagne ou en Amérique, parlant anglais ou français, de 17-18 ans et aimant voyager, lire, s'amuser.
Marie-Paule Peretti
67, bd Mortier,
75040 Paris.

J'ai 23 ans, souhaite correspondante(s), même âge, se passionnant comme moi pour l'écriture, la fantaisie, l'anglais, la poésie, la musique, la mode, etc. Env. photo SVP.
Audrey Segaral
96, bd P. Mistral,
34600 Beziers.

16 years old french girl loving music, fashion, travel and pictures seeking desperately penpal from Australia, Sweden and anywhere else.
Susy Etes
80, hameau de la Croche Cassee
95360 Puteaux en France.

Jeune Martiniquaise de 16 ans habitant près de Paris désire correspondre avec filles et garçons de 15 à 18 ans, parlant français, anglais ou espagnol et aimant le cinéma, la musique et la lecture. Tous les pays sont acceptés, et une réponse est assurée.
Laurent Macario
8, rue Jean Rostand, 91300
Massy.

J'ai 18 ans, je vais vivre et travailler à St-Laurent de la Salengue dans quelques semaines. Je cherche amitiés dans la région pour sorties. J'aime le ciné, la mode, la musique et le sport.
Franco Boltzani
32, sq Francis-Jamnes, 76990
Elancourt.

J'ai 20 ans aimerais correspondre avec garçons anglais, parlant français, de 20 ans et plus. J'aime la musique, le cinéma, etc. Et surtout l'Angleterre. Joindre photo.
Réponses assurées
Véronique Pellin
118 bis, rue Pasteur, 02300
Chauny.

J'ai 21 ans 1/2 recherche amitiés durables 20-25 ans, des USA, d'Australie, de Nouvelle Zélande, pour échanges photos, cartes postales, idées, recettes, discuter de tout et de rien. En français et en anglais.
Agnes Maidera 18,
rue Gérard
Philippe, 38100
Grenoble.

Je cherche des amies vivant de préférence à Paris qui aiment aussi la musique (disco et reggae), le cinéma, la danse, le shopping, les voyages, l'aviation et les très longues lettres ! J'ai 21 ans. A bientôt !
Selinda Kross
Vandmolen 26,
1035 AR
Amsterdam,
Pays-Bas.

Étudiante anglaise-française, 21 ans, aimerais correspondre avec filles ou garçons si possible même âge et de tous pays aimant tennis, lecture, voyages, musique, cinéma, mode et danse classique.
Christine Vogel
Brandenburger Str.
33, D-6100
Darmstadt 13, RFA.

Au secours

Je ne crois pas à l'amour. La passion que j'attendais n'est jamais venue. Je me lasse et je les lâche tous. Même les flirts de mes amis ne m'intéressent plus. J'ai l'impression de sortir avec des garçons pour me prouver que je puis. Suis-je anormale ? J'ai tellement envie d'être amoureuse pour de bon, de vivre la grande émotion, le grand frisson.

Elizabeth

Est-ce l'amour, voire la passion, que vous cherchez ? N'est-ce pas plutôt la preuve que vous existiez ? Que l'amour soit le lieu privilégié où chacun trouve le sentiment de sa puissance et de sa complétude, c'est vrai. Le lieu de sa contingence et de son incomplétude aussi. La quête de la preuve est à la base de tous les tourments amoureux depuis que le monde est monde. Il n'existe pas de preuve en amour. Le mariage lui-même n'en est pas une. L'amour, finalement, est insaisissable, indémontrable, repère surtout par la douleur qu'il entraîne. « Plaisir d'amour ne dure qu'un moment, chagrin d'amour dure toute la vie... » dit la chanson.

Communicative strategies and techniques

TRAIN TIMETABLES

(The rubric for this and other activities could be in the target language, depending on the linguistic level of the learners.)

You (or your boss) are going from Toulouse to Paris for a meeting. You want to arrive in the early afternoon. Check which train would be most suitable and what facilities are available on the train. (See train timetable.)

Numero du train Notes à consulter	472	7450	7456	7444	6454	7460	74	6480	6480	6436	6402	4702	7442	6480	7430	7444	6470	76	6430	6440	6470	6434	6474	9744	774	7710	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25		
	X																										
Toulouse-Matabiau	D	08 07	04 56		08 07		07 12	07 37	09 17	10 19	10 33	13 00	14 34				17 30	17 45	18 02	19 20	21 10	21 43	22 40	22 55	23 00	23 17	
Montauban-Ville Bourbon	D	08 06	05 25		08 35		07 52	08 04	09 45	10 46	11 02	13 27	15 01				17 56	18 11	18 32	19 51	21 46	22 17	23 13		23 34	23 50	
Caussade (T et G)	D		05 39		06 50		08 12		10 01	11 02	11 18	13 44							18 48	20 07	22 07	22 30	23 26				
Cahors	D	01 29	06 15	06 15	07 16		08 42	08 42	10 28	11 28	11 44	14 10	15 38	16 37			17 37	18 34	18 48	19 18	20 53	22 37	23 07	23 59	00 15	00 38	
Gaillac	D		06 48	06 48	07 44		09 11	09 08		11 56	12 14	14 38		17 12			18 12			19 46	20 59	23 05	23 38	00 37			
Soulac	D		07 08	07 08	08 00		09 30	09 28		12 13	12 33	14 55		17 34			18 34			20 05	21 16	23 23	23 56	00 46			
Brière la Gâtelle	A	02 36	07 35	07 35	08 25		09 58	09 50	11 31	12 38	13 02	15 20	16 44	18 00	18 21	18 30	19 00	19 37	19 49	20 30	21 42	23 52	00 25	01 14		02 10	
Luzern-Benedictines	A	03 46			09 32	10 10		10 53	12 38	13 54	14 21	16 28	18 00		19 26	19 58		20 40	20 50	23 00	23 00	01 10	02 12	02 27		03 30	
Chateauroux	A	06 00				11 18		12 00	13 02	15 05	15 41	18 08	19 17		20 52			21 57				02 50	03 47	04 07		05 00	
Vierzon	A					11 50			14 25	15 38	16 18	18 48	19 53									03 25	04 24	04 40			
Les Aubrais-Orléans	A								15 05	16 18	16 59	19 44	20 34		22 00							04 17	05 17	06 35		06 02	
Paris-Austerlitz	A	07 48				13 18		13 54	16 07	17 10	18 00	20 45	21 35		23 03			23 46	23 49			05 41	06 28	06 48	07 53	08 18	07 45

Les trains circulant tous les jours ont leurs horaires indiqués en gras.
Tous les trains offrent des places assises en 1^{re} et 2^e classe, sauf indication contraire dans les notes.

X-train n'offrant pas la totalité des prestations sur tout son parcours ou sur toute sa circulation.
Un service de navettes assure la correspondance entre Les Aubrais-Orléans et Orléans.

Notes

1. temporaire.
2. Circule les lun sauf les 20 avr 87. Circule les 12 nov, 26 dec 86, 2 jan, 21 avr et 29 mai 87.
3. Circule tous les jours sauf les lun, dim et fêtes et sauf les 12 nov, 26 dec 86, 2 jan, 21 avr et 29 mai 87.
4. Circule les lun sauf les 10 nov 86 et 20 avr 87. Circule les 12 nov 86 et 21 avr 87.
5. Circule les lun sauf les 10 nov 86 et 20 avr 87. Circule les 12 nov 86 et 21 avr 87. A supplément certains jours.
6. Circule les dim.
7. Circule tous les jours sauf les dim et sauf les 25 dec 86, 1er jan, 20 avr, 2 9 et 28 mai 87. A supplément de Brière la Gâtelle à Paris-Austerlitz 1^{re}CL certains jours .
8. Circule les ven sauf les 1er et 8 mai 87. Circule les 24, 31 dec 86, 30 avr, 7 et 27 mai 87. CORAIL .
9. Circule les dim sauf les 9 nov 86 et 19 avr 87. Circule les 11 nov 86 et 20 avr 87. CORAIL .
10. Ne prend pas de voyageurs à Les Aubrais-Orléans. CORAIL .
11. Circule jusqu'au 24 mai 87. les ven dim sauf les 9 nov, 26 dec 86, 2 jan, 19 avr, 1er et 8 mai 87. Circule les 11 nov, 24, 31 dec 86, 20, 30 avr, 7 et 27 mai 87. CORAIL.
12. CORAIL .
13. Circule les dim et fêtes.
14. Circule les dim sauf les 9 nov 86 et 19 avr 87. Circule les 11 nov 86 et 20 avr 87.
15. Circule tous les jours sauf les dim et fêtes.
16. Circule les 11 nov 86, 4 jan, 20 avr, 3 et 10 mai 87. A supplément .
17. Circule tous les jours sauf les 1er, 9, 10 nov 86, 19 avr, 2 9 et 28 mai 87. A supplément 1^{re}CL certains jours .
18. Circule tous les jours sauf les sam, dim et fêtes.
19. Circule les sam, dim et fêtes.
20. Circule les dim sauf les 9 nov 86 et 19 avr 87. Circule les 11 nov 86 et 20 avr 87 .
21. Circule jusqu'au 24 mai 87. les ven dim sauf les 26 dec 86, 2 jan, 19 avr, 1er et 8 mai 87. Circule les 11 nov, 23, 30 dec 86, 3 5 jan, 20, 25, 30 avr, 7 et 27 mai 87 temporaire .
22. .
23. Circulation périodique renseignez vous Conditions d'admission. Renseignez vous Places couchées uniquement temporaire .
24. Tram accessible seulement aux voyageurs ayant acquitté le supplément places couchées. Places couchées uniquement .
25. Circule les dim sauf les 9 nov 86 et 19 avr 87. Circule les 11 nov, 20, 23 dec 86, 3 5 jan, 20 et 25 avr 87 .

Note: A Paris-Austerlitz l'office de tourisme de Paris assure un service d'information touristique et de réservation hôtelière.

Note: Ces horaires et renseignements sont donnés sous réserve de toute modification.
SNCF Paris - RC B 552 049 447 - Dépot légal 3^e trimestre 1986.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Communicative strategies and techniques

JOBS

Describe the interests and level of a variety of school students, for example:

Jean-François a 15 ans. Il aime les animaux et il s'intéresse aux voitures.

Nicole a 17 ans. Elle s'intéresse aux ordinateurs.

Julien a 14 ans. Il s'intéresse à la cuisine et à la mode.

For which career packs should they send away to *Educatel*? (See *Educatel* advertisement.)

Parmi tous ces métiers,

**Consultez
le répertoire
des
formations
Educatel**

METIERS	NIVEAU
AGRONOMIE TROPICALE	
■ Technicien en agronomie tropicale	B.E.P.C.
■ Sous-ingénieur en agronomie tropicale	B.T.A.
■ Technicien forestier des pays tropicaux	B.E.P.C.
■ Agriculteur	Accès, à tous
■ Informaticien et comptabilité agricole	3°
ANIMAUX	
■ Elevateur de chevaux	Accès, à tous
■ Elevateur de chiens	Accès, à tous
■ Secrétaire assistant(e) vétérinaire	Accès, à tous
■ Dresseur de chiens	Accès, à tous
■ Toiletteur de chiens	Accès, à tous
■ Maître-chien de sécurité	Accès, à tous
AUDIOVISUEL	
■ Reporter vidéo	3°
■ Assistant réalisateur vidéo	3°
■ Réalisateur vidéo	Baccalauréat
AUTOMATISMES	
■ Initiation aux automatismes	3°
■ Technicien en automatismes	C.A.P./P
■ Electronicien automatisé	Accès, à tous
■ Mécanicien en automatismes	Accès, à tous
■ Régisseur programmeur	C.A.P./P
■ Technicien en mécanique automatisée	3°
■ Technicien des robots	Terminale
■ BTS informatique industrielle	Terminale
■ BTS mécanique automatisés	Terminale
■ BTS fabrications mécaniques	Terminale
AUTO-MOTO	
■ Mécanicien auto et C.A.P.	Accès, à tous
■ Conducteur routier et C.A.P.	Accès, à tous
■ Electronicien auto	Accès, à tous
■ Installateur/dépanneur en auto-radio	Accès, à tous
■ Spécialiste des véhicules	Accès, à tous
■ Mécanicien poids lourds	Accès, à tous
■ Mécanicien moto	Accès, à tous
■ Moniteur(trice) auto-école (prép. examen officiel)	Accès, à tous
BUREAUTIQUE	
■ Secrétaire en bureautique	3°
■ Secrétaire de traitement de textes	3°
■ Secrétaire des services informatiques	Accès, à tous
■ BTS bureautique et secrétariat	Baccalauréat

BANQUE	
■ Employé(e) de banque	Accès, à tous
BATIMENT	
■ Dessinateur en bâtiment	Accès, à tous
■ Dessinateur(trice) assistant(e) d'architecte	Accès, à tous
■ Dessinateur(trice) en maisons individuelles	C.A.P./P
■ Chef de chantier T.P.	C.A.P./P+sup
■ Chef de chantier bâtiment	C.A.P./P+sup
BOIS ET FORETS	
■ Garde-chasse	Accès, à tous
■ Garde forestier	Accès, à tous
■ Sylviculteur	Accès, à tous
B.T.S. DES TECHNIQUES D'AVENIR	
■ BTS informatique	Terminale
■ BTS informatique industrielle	Terminale
■ BTS électronique	Terminale
■ BTS fabrications mécaniques	Terminale
■ BTS mécanique automatisés	Terminale
■ BTS froid et climatisation	Terminale
■ BTS électrotechnique	Terminale

CINEMA	
■ Assistant réalisateur cinéma	3°
■ Caméraman	3°
■ Moniteur de films	3°
■ Scénariste	Baccalauréat
CLIMATISATION	
■ Technicien en énergies nouvelles	B.V.P.
■ Moniteur frigoriste	Accès, à tous
■ Technicien frigoriste	C.A.P./P
■ Technicien froid et climatisation	C.A.P./P
■ BTS froid et climatisation	Terminale
COMMERCE	
■ Représentant	B.E.P.C.
■ Gérant de magasin	Terminale
■ Artiste commercial	3°
■ Artisan commercial	Baccalauréat
■ BTS action commerciale	Baccalauréat
COMPTABILITE - GESTION	
■ Aide-comptable	Accès, à tous
■ C.A.P. employé de comptabilité	Accès, à tous
■ Comptable sur informatique	3°
■ Comptable commercial	3°
■ B.E.P. comptabilité	B.E.P.C.
■ Assistant de gestion	Terminale
■ BTS comptabilité et gestion	Baccalauréat
COUTURE	
■ Couturière à son compte	Accès, à tous
■ Couturière à domicile	Accès, à tous
■ C.A.P. couture flou	Accès, à tous
■ Vente en prêt-à-porter	Accès, à tous

DECORATION	
■ Décoratrice d'intérieurs	3°
■ Assistant décorateur	3°
■ Esthéticienne	Accès, à tous

DESSIN	
■ Dessinateur publicitaire	3°/P
■ Lettrier	3°/P
■ Dessinateur illustrateur	3°/P
DIETETIQUE	
■ Conseillère vendeuse en produits diététiques	Accès, à tous
■ BTS diététique	Baccalauréat

EDUCATION	
■ Assistante maternelle	Acc. à toutes
■ Auxiliaire de jardins d'enfants	Acc. à toutes
■ Moniteur éducateur	B.E.P.C.
■ Educateur de jeunes enfants	Baccalauréat
■ Educateur spécialisé	3°
ELECTRICITE	
■ Installateur électricien	Accès, à tous
■ Artisan électricien	Accès, à tous
■ Electricien d'entretien	Accès, à tous
■ Technicien électricien	C.A.P./P
■ Assistant d'ingénieur électricien	Terminale
■ C.A.P. électrotechnique	Accès, à tous
■ BTS électrotechnique	Terminale
ELECTROMECHANIQUE	
■ Electromécanicien	Accès, à tous
■ Technicien électromécanicien	C.A.P./P
ELECTRONIQUE	
■ Initiation à l'électronique	Accès, à tous
■ C.A.P. électronique	Accès, à tous
■ Electronicien	Accès, à tous
■ Technicien électronique	C.A.P./P
■ Moniteur en systèmes d'alarme	Accès, à tous
■ Technicien en micro-processeurs	C.A.P./P
■ Installateur dépan. électroménager	Accès, à tous
■ BTS électronique	Terminale
ESTHETIQUE	
■ Esthéticienne	Acc. à toutes
■ Conseillère vendeuse en parfumerie	Acc. à toutes
■ Maquilleuse	Acc. à toutes
■ Esthéticienne naturopathe	Terminale
■ BTS esthétique-cosmétique	Baccalauréat
EXPORT	
■ Responsable export	Baccalauréat
■ Déclarant en douanes	3°
■ BTS commerce international	Baccalauréat

FONCTION PUBLIQUE	
■ Gardien de la paix	Accès, à tous
■ Préposé des douanes	Accès, à tous
■ Surveillant des établissements	Accès, à tous
■ Inspecteur de police	Baccalauréat
■ Préposé des P.T.T.	Accès, à tous
■ Agent de constatation des infractions	Accès, à tous
FORME - SPORTS	
■ Hygiéniste naturopathe	Terminale
■ Technicien de la forme	3°
■ Conseillère en esthétique corporelle	Baccalauréat
■ Masséur kinésithérapeute	Baccalauréat
■ Educateur sportif	3°

lequel choisissez-vous?

G METIERS NIVEAU

GRAPHOLOGIE

- Initiation à la graphologie
- Graphologie

Accès à tous
Terminale

H METIERS NIVEAU

HOTELLERIE RESTAURATION

- Réceptionniste hôtelière
- Hôtelier restaurateur
- Comptable en gestion hôtelière
- C.A.P. cuisinier
- Gérant de restaurant

3^e
3^e
3^e/4^e
Accès à tous
3^e

I METIERS NIVEAU

INFORMATION COMMUNICATION

- Biothécaire documentaliste
- Aide-documentaliste
- Assistant de relations publiques
- Responsable de studio publicitaire

Terminale
3^e
3^e
Terminale

I METIERS NIVEAU

INFORMATIQUE

- Initiation à l'informatique
- Initiation aux micro-ordinateurs
- Programmeur sur micro-ordinateur
- Secrétaire opératrice sur micro
- Employé(e) informatique des services comptables
- Opérateur(trice) de traitement de textes
- Programmeur de gestion
- Analyste programmeur de gestion
- BTS informatique

Accès à tous
Accès à tous
P.C.A.P.
Accès à tous
4^e/3^e
Accès à tous
3^e/1^{re}
Terminale
Terminale

J METIERS NIVEAU

JURIDIQUE

- Capacité en droit
- Assistant juridique
- Greffier
- Secrétaire juridique

1^{re}
Terminale
Baccalauréat
Terminale

L METIERS NIVEAU

LANGUES

- Initiation
- anglais, allemand, espagnol
- Perfectionnement
- anglais, allemand, espagnol

Accès à tous
3^e

M METIERS NIVEAU

MODE

- Dessinatrice de mode
- Modéliste
- Styliste de mode

3^e
3^e
Terminale

N METIERS NIVEAU

NATURE

- Dessinateur(trice) paysagiste
- Décorateur(trice) florale(s)
- Horticulteur(trice)
- Producteur(trice) pour herbosserie
- Jardinier paysagiste
- Entrepreneur paysagiste

Accès à tous
Accès à tous
Accès à tous
Accès à tous
Accès à tous
Terminale

P METIERS NIVEAU

PARAMEDICAL

- Employé(e) de pharmacie
- Aide-soignant(e)
- Auxiliaire de puériculture
- Infirmier
- Orthophoniste
- Secrétaire de médecin
- Secrétaire médico-sociale

Acc. à toutes
Acc. à toutes
B.E.P.C.
Baccalauréat
Baccalauréat
3^e
3^e

P METIERS NIVEAU

PROTECTION ET SECURITE

- Monteur dépan. systèmes d'alarme
- Technicien installateur en surveillance électronique
- Technicien en systèmes d'alarme
- Agent de protection et de surveillance
- Installateur dépanneur en surveillance électronique

Accès à tous
C.A.P./3^e
C.A.P./3^e
Accès à tous
Accès à tous

P METIERS NIVEAU

PHOTOGRAPHIE

- Photographe
- C.A.P. photographe
- Reporter photo
- Photographe artistique
- Photographe publicitaire

4^e/3^e
4^e/3^e
4^e/3^e
4^e/3^e
4^e/3^e

P METIERS NIVEAU

PUBLICITE - MARKETING

- Responsable marketing
- Chef de produit
- Techn. du marketing téléphonique
- Assistant chef de publicité
- BTS communication publicitaire

Baccalauréat
Terminale
3^e
3^e
Baccalauréat

R METIERS NIVEAU

RADIO TV HI-FI

- Monteur dépanneur radio TV Hi-Fi
- Technicien radio TV Hi-Fi
- Technicien en sonorisation
- Technicien vidéo

Accès à tous
C.A.P./3^e
C.A.P./3^e
C.A.P./3^e

S METIERS NIVEAU

SECRETARIAT

- Sténodactylo
- Employé de bureau
- Dactylo standardiste
- Secrétaire de direction

Accès à tous
Accès à tous
Accès à tous
Accès à tous

T METIERS NIVEAU

TOURISME

- Hôtesse du tourisme
- Animateur de loisirs
- Guide accompagnateur
- BTS tourisme

3^e
3^e
Terminale
Baccalauréat

V METIERS NIVEAU

VENTE

- Caissière vendeuse
- Télévendeuse
- Chef de rayon

Accès à tous
4^e/3^e
1^{re}

- Si vous êtes salarié(e), possibilité de suivre votre étude dans le cadre de la Formation Professionnelle Continue -

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Si non, quelle est votre situation ? ☐ Etudiant ☐ A la recherche d'un emploi

☐ Femme au foyer ☐ Autres

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le métier qui vous intéresse

et de nous le faire parvenir

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152-300

Communicative strategies and techniques

TV PROGRAMMES

There are three different films on at 8.30 on Sunday night. What are they each about? Which one would you prefer to watch and why?



DIMANCHE
8 FÉVRIER

20.30

LES DIMANCHES DU CINÉMA
CINÉMA COMÉDIE FRANCO-ALLEMANNE EN COULEUR

L'ASSOCIÉ

DE RENÉ CLAIRVILLE (1979)
(Durée initiale : 1h35)



Julien
(Michel
Serrault)
et Louis
(Mathieu
Carrière)

Avec Michel Serrault : Julien Pardot • Claudine Auger : Agnès Pardot • Catherine Airie : Alice Dufron • Judith Magre : Mme Breot • Mathieu Carrière : Louis • Bernard Haller : Helzer

Julien Pardot (Michel Serrault) végète comme dessinateur dans une agence de publicité. Modeste, effacé, il finit par entrer non patron qui voudrait des employés plus dynamiques. Julien est congédié. Persuadé d'avoir le sens des affaires, il décide alors d'ouvrir un cabinet de conseil financier.

(Cote TB pour adultes et adolescents)

20.30

CINÉMA COMÉDIE DRAMATIQUE ITALIENNE EN COULEUR

MACARONI

D'ETTORE SCOLA (1986)

Scénario de Ruggero Maccan, Furio Scarpella et Ettore Scola
(Durée initiale : 1h50) VERSION FRANÇAISE



Antonio (Marcello Mastroianni) et Robert (Jack Lemmon)

Avec Jack Lemmon : Robert Traven • Marcello Mastroianni : Antonio Jaseklo • Daria Nicolodi : Laura Di Falco • Isa Danieli : Carmelina Jaseklo

Vice-président d'une société astronautique américaine, Robert Traven (Jack Lemmon) effectue un bref séjour à Naples. Il retrouve là un vieil ami, Antonio Jaseklo (Marcello Mastroianni) qui il a connu pendant la guerre.

Heure exa : confrontation de deux cultures. Macaroni est une œuvre axée avant tout sur les personnages, drôles et émouvants, auxquels Jack Lemmon et Marcello Mastroianni apportent toute leur verve et leur talent.

(Cote TB : adultes et adolescents)

Proch. diff. : mardi, 23.05 (v.o.)

20.30

LES ENQUÊTES DU COMMISSAIRE MAIGRET
TÉLÉFILM FRANÇAIS

UN ÉCHEC DE MAIGRET

RÉALISÉ PAR GILLES KATZ

D'après Georges Simenon. Adaptation et dialogues de Bernard Marie

Jean Richard : le commissaire Maigret
Georges Aubert : Joseph Muller
Teddy Billa : Moers
François Cedet : Lucifé
Françoise Christophe : Mme Fumal
Paul Crauchet : Emile Lentin
Jean-Paul Roussillon : Fumal
Catherine Rouvel : Louise Bourges
Catherine Sauvage : Mme Gaillardin
Pierre Londiche : Gaillardin
Bernard Rousselet : Felix
Odette Piquet : Noémie
Corinne Dacis : Martine Guilloux
Paulette Frantz : Suzanne
Bernard Jenny : le juge d'instruction
Anne Lipinska : Nicole
Paul Sévastian : Victor

L'HISTOIRE

Maigret enquête sur l'assassinat du numéro un de la boucherie parisienne, Ferdinand Fumal.

Quelques jours avant sa mort, Fumal (Jean-Paul Roussillon) était venu voir le commissaire Maigret (Jean Richard) à la fin de sa tournée. Les deux hommes se connaissent depuis longtemps, ils avaient été au lycée ensemble, et dès lors ne s'éloignent guère. Fumal exigeait la protection de la police parce qu'il recevait des lettres anonymes. Il avait fait voter ses intentions amicales avec le ministre de l'intérieur, si bien que Maigret avait été obligé de prendre l'affaire en main.

Le jour même où Maigret apprend que l'auteur des lettres anonymes est vraisemblablement Fumal lui-même, ce dernier est tué. Au fil et à mesure que l'enquête avance, Maigret découvre que tout le monde déteste Fumal.

Louise Bourges (Catherine Rouvel) et Maigret (Jean Richard)



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Communicative strategies and techniques

Additional strategies

USING THE CULTURALLY AND TOPICALLY FAMILIAR IN YOUR ACTIVITIES

One advantage that home-made worksheets and activities can have over published materials is the possibility of using absolutely up-to-date authentic materials and personalities who are in the public eye at the time. Using these people can have a significant value. For some learners, learning a foreign language can be a rather alien and alienating experience and so using cultural references that are familiar to them can make the work less daunting and more pleasurable. It also means they may understand more of what is going on and make more effort to understand, since part of the work is already part of their experience. It is too risky for most published courses to include real people since popularity and fashions in popular culture change fairly rapidly.

Some examples:

FAMILY TREES

Talking about your family is still included in most syllabuses but this can be a touchy topic for some pupils whose parents may be in the process of splitting up or divorcing or who have no desire to discuss their home circumstances. A way of tackling the topic is to use a famous family instead.

A family tree of the Royal family or one of the big families from the soap opera currently in vogue (The Fowlers in *Eastenders* have a good variety of permutations) generally work well in class. The relationships are more than familiar, thanks to the massive media coverage and interest in the relationships of the rich and famous.

PARTNERS

Write on small pieces of card the names of people who are part of a famous duo or partnership and hand them out at random around the class.

Torville and Dean
Nancy and Ronald
Maggie and Denis
Michelle and Lofty
Andy and Fergie
Bruce Willis and ...

The aim is to find your partner by questioning as many people as you can about what they are like, but without asking directly 'What are you called?' you may ask, 'Are you a man or a woman? / Are you old or young? / Are you married? / Do you have any children? / Do you like skating?' etc. This activity can be quite fast

Communicative strategies and techniques

moving and get people talking a lot and to a wider variety of people than they would normally work with.

DESCRIBING PEOPLE

Find small photographs of about five or six famous people. (The daily press / *Radio Times* and *TV Times* / teen mags are a good source of pictures.)

Write descriptions of each of the people. The learners have to match up the written description with the celebrity.

USING SOME UNEXPECTED PROPS AND STIMULI IN LESSONS

Although having a routine can be valuable in a language lesson, such as always greeting the class and asking how they are, and expecting the same courtesy in return, it is equally valuable to have a few surprises and unexpected appearances in the classroom from time to time. This can make a lesson seem much more fun and give the learners something to look forward to, wondering what you might have dreamed up next for them. It can also make them feel special and more valued if you think it is worth going to the trouble of providing something a little out of the ordinary.

Some examples of useful language teaching 'props':

Russian dolls are good for teaching small and large and the comparative and superlative forms of these.

Teddy bears and dolls or glove puppets can be useful for holding conversations as a variation on the teacher trying to jump from place to place, while being a wide variety of different characters.

A bag containing a **table cloth, vase of dried flowers, menu, tray, and glass** or two is always useful to have available for café scenes.

Battery-operated **toy telephones** can be used for many different activities, including making appointments at the dentist or doctor, leaving messages, booking hotel rooms, asking for information to be sent. Since they work up to a distance of about twenty metres it is possible for someone to have a real telephone conversation and have to use all the strategies that that entails. Some reluctant speakers can forget their inhibitions, since they think that only the person at the other end of the line can hear them.

A bag containing '**tourist**' items such as a sun hat, towel, film, battery, bottle of sun tan cream, postcards, stamps, T shirt, tourist guide and magazine is also very useful for shopping scenes. Turn a soap powder carton or empty Pampers box into a postbox/fridge/cupboard.

INTENSIVE LANGUAGE DAYS

Very few schools are able to provide a *section bilingue*, where a couple of school subjects are taught entirely in the foreign language, but it may be possible to hold an occasional intensive language day which gives learners

Communicative strategies and techniques

greater exposure than usual to the target language and more opportunity to practise using it.

These days have to be planned and prepared quite a long way in advance, and as many language assistants and students as you can find brought in to help.

When you have perhaps a whole year group or a couple of classes available for a whole day, it is possible to set up a good selection of diverse communicative activities. There have been some extremely successful days held in Oxfordshire schools, ranging from a very ambitious and successful 'Operation Max' using a scenario based on the Second World War, to some much smaller but nevertheless successful days. Activities included Keep Fit sessions, learning German and French songs, making sweets, a 'Guess the taste' competition, some palmistry, some 'magic' games, making an Advent Calendar, writing and acting some French and German scenes, making a study of some advertisements and then writing and videoing some new ones.

The activities were carried out almost entirely in the foreign language, as were the breaks for coffee and lunch, which were provided on some of these occasions. The benefits, in terms of resultant motivation and increased understanding of many things through working in small groups, far outweighed some of the inconveniences of organisation and complaints from other members of staff about the loss of their time.

USING THE LEARNER'S OWN CREATIVITY

A possible criticism of many current courses and language syllabuses is that there is not a lot of possibility for learners to use their own sense of creativity. Many of the transactional tasks are useful but maybe a little dull when performed too many times in succeeding years. Some of the new GCSE tests give learners little opportunity to put much of themselves into the activities. In classwork, however, there is no reason why they cannot be given the opportunity to create some interesting or humorous pieces of work, perhaps in the form of collages, imitation letters to problem pages, spoof horoscopes, cartoons, advertisements and interviews.

Most learners, especially the young ones, do want to understand and use the language they are learning. They will work with enthusiasm if the exercises and activities provided have a sense of purpose or realism, or simply enough intrinsic interest to engage their attention. It is especially important in a language class that learners understand what they are supposed to do and how they are supposed to do it, and so instructions need to be especially clear. Learners will obviously benefit from as wide an exposure to the foreign language as you can provide and will respond even better if they are given some extra or unexpected treats and stimuli. It is also important to remember that these things do not just improve the experience for the learners, but make the lessons more enjoyable and rewarding for the teacher too.

THE FOUR SKILLS

Barry Jones

Introduction

There must be a few pupils in British schools today who believe that foreign language learning can be neatly packaged into the separate compartments of listening, reading, speaking and writing. This contribution will attempt to describe how this impression of language learning may have been created. It will then assess whether a teacher, whose main preoccupation is with involving learners in real life activities, should be concerned by such a view of language learning.

If one looks at the specimen papers of the GCSE examination there would appear to be some evidence to confirm this belief. Listening, a paper on its own, is divided into tests of several discrete listening skills. Reading is another separate paper with a variety of texts to be read, each with a set of questions in English designed to test discretely a range of reading skills such as reading for detail, gist, comprehension, inference, etc. Speaking, however, is not always tested discretely. At Higher level, the speaking tests often include asking and replying to questions. Replying to questions, by definition, must be a combined listening and speaking task. At Basic level, however, tests are nearly always discrete skill tests with speech being prompted mostly by cues in English and enacted in simple role play tasks. Here is an example of such a task:

The examiner will provide a brief introduction in French locating the candidate at a Tourist Information Office in Paris, with the examiner acting the employee.

Candidate instructions

- 1 *Ask for a map of the city.*
- 2 *Thank the person for the map and say that you would also like some leaflets on Paris.*
- 3 *Ask if the Eiffel Tower is open today.*
- 4 *Ask how much it costs to go up the Eiffel Tower.*
- 5 *Ask if you can buy Métro tickets at the Office.*

(London and East Anglian Group (LEAG) March 1986)

The four skills

In the analysis made so far, the fact that there are discrete skill tests need not in itself give cause for concern. These can, and often do, involve real-life language use, like listening to the radio or reading a newspaper. However, the role play task illustrated above does not conform to what people do in the real world because the test can be completed quite successfully without the candidate (tourist) understanding a word of what the examiner (employee) says. Since two people do not normally use language like this a learner is being given a view of language which is not mirrored by real-life usage. It is artificially compartmentalised into a single-skill activity. It has not taken into account that conversation is as much about listening as it is about speaking. Our imaginary teacher described above will probably not want to encourage such practice.

The skill area in which discrete skill testing is less common is that of writing. Writing tests, at Basic level as well as at Higher level, often require the learner to make a written response to a written, foreign language stimulus. In the syllabus produced by the London and East Anglian Group there is a test, for example, which requires the candidate to

fill in a form or questionnaire. Answers, which will usually consist of a single word or phrase, must be written in the foreign language. The instructions on the form itself will be in the foreign language but those explaining how to fill in the form will be in English. The Examiner will ensure that no undue burden of comprehension will be placed on the candidate (LEAG, March 1986).

Other tests include writing a postcard in the foreign language. In the Northern Examining Association's (NEA) examination this test requires the learner to adapt a model postcard, which has been sent from France and which is printed on the examination paper. Instructions are in English to help the learners adapt the wording shown (NEA, 1986). The same test is used by LEAG. Writing letters in response to letters in the foreign language is another mixed-skill task where discrete skill testing is not being used. Three examination groups, NEA, LEAG, and the Southern Examining Group (SEG, 1986), use this test form. As can be seen from the examples above, some tests in the area of writing and some in the area of Higher speaking are mixed skill. The great majority remain discrete. In itself, as has been suggested above, this need not necessarily cause a conflict between what a teacher wishes to do in the classroom and what will be tested. What, then, has this albeit simplified analysis of the new GCSE examination revealed?

The analysis seems to highlight an important principle which may be considered appropriate when assessing elements of linguistic behaviour, but which may not apply so directly to real life language use which teachers are trying to encourage. The examinations try, on the whole, to ensure that a learner's performance in one skill area should not prejudice his or her chances to demonstrate competence in another. This principle tends to encourage discrete skill tests where, for example, a learner's performance in a speaking test is not made dependent on an ability to comprehend a written or spoken prompt in the

The four skills

foreign language. There is an inconsistency in practice, however. Some writing in the foreign language is dependent, at least to some degree, on the ability to read a foreign language stimulus. This we have already seen in the letter writing task. A similar relationship between receptive and productive skills does not exist in the assessment of speaking. Examinations have not so far included a task which is designed to assess how well a candidate can report orally something which he/she has listened to, such as an item of radio news. In examination terms the commonsense reason for excluding such a test might be that a candidate cannot demonstrate an ability to report the radio news item if he/she has not firstly understood it, although this principle does not seem to be applied in the letter writing task. As a form of diagnostic test, oral reporting would again seem unsatisfactory because a failure to report the news item has two possible causes, neither of which is known for certain.

The candidate may have failed to understand it or he/she may be unable to produce the appropriate language when, in fact, comprehension has presented no problems. If the examination seeks to record positive achievement it must assess both the comprehension and the production. Thus, underlying and justifying the principle is the desire to measure separately every aspect of a learner's competence in terms of positive and recordable ability in listening, speaking, reading or writing.

When put into practice in the examination papers of the GCSE, the emphasis on the separate measurement of each of the four skill areas does have the effect of compartmentalisation and of not showing the interrelationship and interdependence of language skills in real life linguistic activity. It also creates an artificial difficulty. It denies the learner a very useful communicative strategy, namely that of looking for information from, for example, spoken and written sources simultaneously and of therefore using more than one language skill at a time to aid understanding. Most people have had experience of hearing information, believing they have understood it but only being confident that they are not mistaken if they see it confirmed in print or in writing. People who work in information offices, for example, or in travel agencies, recognise this fact. Customers are often shown the printed version of what they have just been told orally so that misunderstandings do not occur. A teacher might wish to encourage such practices in the classroom.

It is also sometimes the case that the meaning of what is heard is helped by reading what we see around us. Notices, posters, signs, as well as other visual clues are frequently a source of necessary information. Describing the setting in English, as most examinations do, does not have the same reality as is present in these environmental clues, especially when what is being described is set in the foreign country. In other words, understanding language is sometimes the result of using more than one skill at any one time. This certainly must have implications for classroom practice, especially if the justification for what we teach is that it mirrors as far as possible everyday language use. It also questions why examinations should not, in part, seek to measure outcome, rather than competence in discrete skill terms. Why could they not, for example, provide both a reading text and an audio recording on the same topic and set one task which relates to both sources of related information? Classroom practice

The four skills

might also include listening activities which were assessed implicitly. This could be done

by assessing some form of outcome, e.g. how well some information previously heard on tape is relayed to another pupil who did not hear the recording (Gorman & Brooks, 1986).

To integrate the skills therefore seems a desirable objective if an attempt is being made to simulate reality in our classrooms. While recognising that some classroom practice can, with justification, concentrate on single skill activities it would seem that this emphasis in the GCSE examination misses out other possibilities which a teacher might wish to explore. A little of this potential is illustrated in what follows.

Integrating the skills

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

One combination which has already been mentioned is that of listening and speaking. This would seem to be an entirely realistic activity, which also makes good use of a scarce resource, namely recordings made by native speakers. If, for example, a learner is asked to listen to two or three foreign speakers introducing and describing themselves, listing their likes and dislikes, saying how they like spending their free time, etc, he/she can pass on these details to others in the class in order that the latter choose suitable partners for themselves. In terms of the skills which it practises, the activity would seem to be worthwhile as a listening and speaking task for learner A, the transmitter of the information, and as a listening task for the other learners. Ideally, the native speakers would be unknown to learner A and to the rest of the class. They might be, for example, participants in a class-to-class, person-to-named-person tapelink.¹

Of course, a person-to-person tapelink is not always possible, especially in the short term, and so other possibilities need exploring. The essential features of any such activity are that:

- 1 learner A does not know the information which he/she is going to transmit to learner(s) B;
- 2 learner B (or a group of other learners) also does not know in advance the information transmitted;
- 3 the information is of interest to all the participants.

Possible activities and topics which would involve relaying information can be described under the following headings:

1 Listening and reporting orally or in writing

- * what to visit, e.g. (i): *a German person told me that if I went to...Munich...
I really should see the...*

The four skills

(ii): *I went to this castle and the guide told me all about the ghost which...*

- * how to go from place A to place B, e.g.:

Look at the map. The local radio station has just sent out warnings of roadworks near..., and floods at... So you are advised to...

- * what happened to a friend (factual information), e.g.:

A German friend of mine was telling me what happened to her when...

- * rumours and gossip (imagination and fantasy), e.g.:

Do you know? Two French girls on the French exchange were talking about what Miss...did in France. She...

- * recalling a past event, e.g.:

We were listening to this old record. It was all about...

- * describing somewhere far away, e.g.:

Do you know? We were listening to this tape about a place called Réunion. It's...

2 Listening and explaining how to do something, orally or in writing

- * drawings; things, people, fictitious beasts, robots
- * making things; models, cookery dishes, paper sculpture
- * doing chemistry experiments like chromatography
- * first aid
- * finding a lost object, person, treasure ²

The listening source can be on tape, from the radio or TV, or spoken by the teacher or another learner. If the source is to be the teacher or the learner(s) this cannot be used in an examination since only native speakers are permitted by the National Criteria for French. However, for classroom practice an activity which involves learners talking to each other through a third person can be entertaining, good listening and speaking practice for the speaker(s), and purposeful listening for the class.

This is organised in the following way. Members of class A, for example, record descriptions of themselves. An 'intermediary' from class B (operating a fictitious marriage agency perhaps) then listens to and presents these portraits to the rest of class B. Class B then choose compatible partners from amongst their group. The fact that class A tape-records these descriptions means that both they and their teacher have a permanent record of what has been said in the foreign language. This aspect of the activity constitutes an element in the periodic assessment of each learner's spoken performance. Because recordings have been made they can also be moderated if this task is to be a part of an examination.

The four skills

3 Reading and telling either orally or in writing

- * as in 2 above ³
also mending punctures!
- * jokes and stories
- * describing people, places, things from reading sources
- * imagining, e.g.:
if you were the person described how would you react if...
- * piecing together evidence, e.g.:
 - (i) *if these papers were found in someone's handbag what do they tell you about the owner of the bag?* ⁴
 - (ii) *if these bits of paper rubbish were found in a dustbin what do they tell you about the person(s) who threw them away?* ⁵
- * justifying choices, e.g.:
from these descriptions (clothes, films, houses, holidays, books, pets, goods, food, meals, husband/ wife/ partner, etc) the one I prefer is...because...
- * explaining how something works

The reading source can be in printed form such as books, reviews, recipes, instructions, catalogues, brochures, printed ephemera such as tickets, labels, packets, etc. It may also be handwritten either by foreign nationals or by the learners themselves.

One useful example of an extended mixed-skill activity is for one group of learners to write a class magazine with articles designed to provoke a spoken or written response. A *Courrier du Coeur* page, a selection of goods wanted or for sale, advertisements for services, fashion pages, beauty tips, jokes, gossip columns (*Scandales, Avez-vous entendu que...?*), sports reports, quizzes, competitions, recipes, crosswords, the diary of a nobody, invitations, surveys, horoscopes, for example, can provide a good stimulus for spoken or written replies. In this way one class can read what another one has written and send back a reply. What seems to motivate learners in this activity is that speaking and writing done like this have definite and predetermined audiences in mind. Pieces of written work, previously seen only by the teacher perhaps, can be written on separate sheets of paper instead of in an exercise book and displayed. It is then the job of a class editorial board to select the best responses and suggest their own contributions. Such contributions can take the form of any of the written outcomes from listening or reading sources as outlined above. It is also a great advantage that the mix of listening, reading, speaking and writing, based on the same topic, help practise a limited amount of language in a necessary variety of ways for a clearly defined and agreed purpose.

The four skills

There would appear to be at least two forms of mixed skill assessment. One example, at Basic level, is shown below. Here the learner is required to complete a number of interrelated tasks which together are a kind of simulation of reality. Each task has an appropriate outcome or number of outcomes built into it, an outcome being defined as something the learner does which can be recorded and assessed.

Candidates are given half an hour in which to complete a (mixed) skill test. They normally will start with Listening and Reading tasks and with preparation for Speaking. When they need to perform a Speaking task they go to the Interviewer (normally their own teacher) who plays whatever roles are required (waiter, friend, etc) and initials successfully completed tasks. When candidates think they have completed the tasks, they show their sheet to the Invigilator. The Invigilator can tell the pupils that they need to try a particular task again, without telling them where the mistake or omission has been made. If the pupils have time left within the half-hour, they may return to the Interviewer. The Invigilator does the final totalling of marks.

PUPIL'S SHEET AREA 2 SAMPLE

NAME: _____

SCHOOL: _____

BEFORE YOU START READ THIS

You have thirty minutes to do the ten tasks on this sheet. Any answers you write on this sheet must be in ENGLISH.

For the tasks marked * you will have to talk in FRENCH to the INTERVIEWER. Put up your hand when you are ready and the INVIGILATOR will tell you when it is your turn. If you have to wait, use your time wisely by preparing other tasks. You can do as many tasks as you want at any one time.

Remember that you can ask the interviewer (in French!) to speak more slowly or to repeat something. As you do your tasks, the interviewer will sign the short lines on the right hand side of this sheet. Sometimes you will get more than one signature.

You can ask the invigilator to explain any of the English instructions on your sheet. When you have finished take your sheet to the invigilator who will check it. You might be told to have another look at something. Remember you can keep trying until your time is up!

* * *

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The weather isn't very good so you have decided that you would like to go to the cinema this evening.

1. Look at the cinema publicity material and jot down the name of a film you would like to see and details of the cinema.

I HAVE CHOSEN _____
WHICH IS SHOWING AT THE _____ CINEMA
ITS ADDRESS IS _____

- *2. It might be more fun to go to the cinema with a friend.
ASK YOUR FRIEND TO COME TO THE CINEMA WITH YOU
MY FRIEND SAID THAT _____
- *3. You decide to phone the cinema first to check on details
CHECK YOU HAVE GOT THE RIGHT CINEMA
ASK IF THEY HAVE SEATS AVAILABLE FOR THE FILM YOU
HAVE CHOSEN
- *4. The box office attendant will ask you a question
MAKE CERTAIN YOU GIVE THE CORRECT INFORMATION
- *5. You want to be certain you have understood the publicity material properly
CHECK WHAT TYPE OF FILM IT IS
IT IS A _____ FILM
- *6. But the material told you nothing about times
FIND OUT WHAT TIME IT STARTS AT
IT STARTS AT _____
FIND OUT WHAT TIME IT FINISHES AT
IT FINISHES AT _____
- *7. You are trying to save money
ASK IF THERE ARE REDUCTIONS FOR STUDENTS
THE ATTENDANT SAID _____
8. You will need to get a bus from the Avenue Carnot where you are staying to the cinema (you have its address from Question 1). Look at the bus timetable and find out the following.

TO GET TO THE CINEMA I WILL TAKE A NUMBER _____
9. TO GET THERE IN TIME I NEED TO CATCH THE BUS WHICH LEAVES AT _____
- *10. The next day you see your friend again. You are asked a question.

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ANSWER THE QUESTION AND SAY WHETHER YOU FOUND IT
DIFFICULT OR EASY TO UNDERSTAND

END OF TEST - NOW TAKE THIS SHEET TO THE INVIGILATOR

(Cambridgeshire Schools 1987)⁶

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Each pupil has their own tape on which *all* their utterances are recorded.

Two teachers need to be involved in the testing - the Interviewer and the Invigilator. They are housed in adjacent or nearby rooms so that pupils can move easily to their interviews without making contact with other candidates. One Invigilator could, however, supervise for two Interviewers and, if a large room is being used, it may be possible for the Interviewer and Invigilator to work in the same room.

Candidates are tested in groups of between three and six. One of the following patterns may be used:

- individual pupils arrive every 7½ - 10 minutes and work for half an hour. This reduces pupils' 'queuing'.
- three/four pupils arrive at the beginning of a half-hour period and finish together at the end of it. This is easy to organise but the Interviewer will be left with spare time at the beginning of each half hour and pupils will often be ready for their interviews at about the same time.

This part of the syllabus, being course work, is assessed by the Invigilator and moderated by moderators appointed by the Cambridgeshire Mode 3 French Working Party. It may then also be moderated by the Examining Board's moderators.

(Cambridgeshire Schools 1987)

As will be immediately clear, what the learners are asked to do is a collection of interrelated tasks, each assessed as it is performed. If, at any point, the sequence breaks down the learner can ask, in French, for help in the form of requests for repetition of information, clarifications, definitions, etc. This will not ultimately affect the performance since these strategies are a normal and essential part of communication. If, notwithstanding these requests for help, the learners cannot complete all that they have to do they can be retested using a second version of the same tasks on another day. The justification for this form of assessment is that it:

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- * simulates real life;
- * assesses language skills in context;
- * mirrors classroom practice;
- * produces a progress chart recording successful performance in specific contexts and settings.

Since the tasks can be performed when the learners are ready and can be retaken if and when the learner chooses, there is a degree of learner autonomy which is felt to be important. Moderation is possible at any time since the learner's oral production is recorded on cassette, and listening and reading are assessed discretely on pupil answer sheets.

A second form of assessment, suitable perhaps at Higher level, might involve learners in producing a cassette or a collection of written accounts over a period of time. Here the stimuli which lead to this production can take the form of:

- * taped materials;
- * live interviews made by the learner with native speakers and/or their teachers;
- * reading materials;
- * answers to questionnaires used in the school, or between schools in Britain, or between a school in Britain and one in a French, German, Spanish speaking school abroad.

Developing the four language skills

None of the above is possible without a clearly defined scheme of work which starts not at the beginning of the fourth year when the GCSE course begins but when the pupils start learning a foreign language. Such a scheme must aim to develop each of the skills both separately and in combination. Many of the strategies for developing reading and listening skills are similar, and so these will be considered together.

READING AND LISTENING:

A. Before either of these take place:

1. Discuss the importance of the context or the setting for understanding. To know, for example, that what you are about to hear or read concerns an event in a school, or on a farm, or in a railway station sets up certain expectations. Here is an example:

You have just received this letter from your correspondent. It is a reply to your letter where you asked for details of what she likes doing and what her favourite school subjects are.

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In this context the learner can expect:

- * vocabulary related to the topic mentioned (school);
- * expressions of preference, likes and, perhaps, dislikes;
- * language which a teenager might use, etc.

2. Discuss the importance of the description of the task for understanding.

Read the message she sends. Does she appear to be a sporty person? If so, what sports does she prefer? Is she keen on the school subjects you like?

Having read the task, the reading of the letter this time has a more specific purpose. The learner is now expecting:

- * vocabulary related to sport as well as to school subjects;
- * expressions of preference, likes and dislikes referring to names of sports and school subjects, etc.

B. During the reading or listening:

1. Scanning

This involves reading the text or listening to the recording and scanning for some form of expected detail, given the setting and the description of the task.

2. Skimming

This skill is used if the reading or listening text does not mention explicitly the detail(s) required for successful completion of the task. The learner has then to skim in order to try to infer information, such as the attitude of the writer.

3. Using grammatical features

In order to get meaning from a text either written or recorded, learners must use their knowledge of grammar to help them see and understand how one part of a text relates to another.

4. Using knowledge of the world and personal experience

Knowledge of the French school system would help, for example, if the message contained a mention of EMT or EPS. The learner would recognise these as being normal ways of referring to Domestic Science or Games by a French teenager. Knowledge therefore of a specific culture helps understanding, as does, at times and in other instances, common sense!

These reading skills can, of course, be taught by discussing them with the learners as and when they are to be practised. However, reading skills can be developed by having a regular, perhaps once fortnightly, silent reading period

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in the school library. Various collections of attractive and appealing short stories are available from publishers. ⁷ If a card is kept for each pupil to record which books have been read it is surprising to see how many a learner will read in one year. Another idea which certainly appeals to some children is to have some books recorded on cassette by a native speaker, perhaps the foreign language assistant. Learners then take home the cassette and book as possible homework.

SPEAKING

By listening to recordings pupils can also be shown how, in conversation, what we say is partly in **SHORT** turns and partly in **LONG** turns. This is important if pupils are to realise that there is a point to their practising all of the following speaking activities:

- (i) transactional tasks (requesting goods, services, etc);
- (ii) sharing personal information;
- (iii) making arrangements;
- (iv) describing, explaining, instructing;
- (v) sharing opinions;
- (vi) creating stories, imagining events, stories.

If some of these are omitted pupils will be unable to cope with skills required in normal conversation - and the **GENERAL CONVERSATION** part of the GCSE - since sometimes we begin and continue a conversation using **SHORT** turns, especially in transactional tasks, and sometimes we respond by describing, narrating, explaining, etc, using **LONG** turns.

Classroom organisation

Since nobody in real life speaks without:

- (i) having something to say;
- (ii) having someone in particular to whom to say it,

we should, as far as possible, attempt to simulate these two aspects of reality in our classrooms. This will involve activities which oblige the person spoken to listen to the speaker because he/she needs the information. With this idea of **audience** in mind it will also involve us in creating opportunities for our pupils to speak to other pupils. This needs perhaps the following organisation:

speaking in

- (i) whole class;
- (ii) pair work;
- (iii) group work;
- (iv) inter-class activities;
- (v) inter-school activities at home/abroad.

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We are used to having oral activities in the classroom. Many teachers give their learners opportunities for talking to them and to each other about subjects the listeners do not know, for example:

Qu'as-tu fait pendant le weekend?
Tu as un animal domestique à la maison?
Comment va-t-on chez toi? etc.

How often do we give learners opportunities to talk to other learners in different classes but in the same school? This has been mentioned earlier but can be repeated in this context because of the importance of the idea of **audience** within a theory of communication.

Practice strategies

- materials and classroom activities can be organised according to the following framework which illustrates how tasks can become more and more demanding.

Transactional tasks

- moving from the predictable use of language to the unpredictable (e.g. a ticket office in a railway station is a setting in which the language used by a railway employee is relatively predictable, whereas when you meet a French friend in a bar it is much less so).

Sharing personal information

- working from information already available, on tape or in written form, to initiating a conversation or changing the topic of a conversation (e.g. a pupil may have received a taped message or a letter in French to which a spoken reply is appropriate and which can use/re-use many of the words, phrases, structures, etc of the initial communication).

A letter which says:

J'ai 16 ans et toi, quel âge as-tu? or
Nous habitons dans une HLM et toi? etc.

lends itself to this kind of reply).

Describing, narrating, instructing

- using a sketch, a diagram, a series of pictures or a collection of realia to describe an event, a situation or a set of instructions in contrast to being asked in conversation simply to describe an event or a process (e.g. a pupil may be asked to tell someone else how to make something. If the learner is given a set of diagrams, then the task is much more straightforward than if he/she has no structure to what is to be described).

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Opinion sharing

- working from a spoken prompt to responding with no model to follow (e.g. a pupil may have listened to one or more spoken versions of the same kind of utterance before being required to do the same. An example of this occurs when two or three people give their opinion about a particular topic and then ask for some kind of reaction from the pupil. If models have been provided, then features of speech such as use of intonation and forms of politeness as well as ways of expressing surprise, disbelief, sorrow, annoyance, etc can be imitated).

Creating and imagining

- working from well rehearsed speech forms to using no prompts at all (e.g. a pupil may have rehearsed ways of telling a story a few times before being asked to do so before an audience, or may simply be asked to respond to a given stimulus with no warning or rehearsal).

WRITING

Perhaps, of all the skills, the practice of writing is the most familiar to teachers and the most daunting to learners. If there is a clear purpose beyond that of practising language form (tense formation, adjectival agreement, etc) then there is a clear justification for a wide range of writing activities. Bearing in mind the principles of communication, namely the idea of conveying a message to a clearly defined audience, a list of possible content for writing might be:

copy writing
combining words cut from newspapers
notes
messages
lists
form filling
instructions
captions
quizzes
diary
game
invitationss
graffiti board

stories
letters
gossip columns
lonely hearts column
horoscopes
advertisements
blank speech bubbles with
cartoons
crosswords
jokes
questionnaires, e.g.
Êtes-vous impeccable?
Valentines

There must, of course, be many more examples of writing. These do, however, illustrate one predominant feature, namely that all these forms of or content for writing can have an element of fun within them and, at times, make use of learners' imaginations as well as of the world of fantasy. Add the contents of

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this list to the syllabus requirements for writing in the GCSE (some activities will appear twice) and a nice balance between the functional and the imaginative will have been achieved. Finally, they can mostly be incorporated into a mixed-skill sequence of teaching which will then ensure practice of the language required in a variety of ways. Learners can:

- * ask each other about the content of messages:
Qu'est-ce qu'il/elle dit?
Qu'est-ce qu'il faut faire?
- * relay the content of the written word to another person who does not know and needs to know the information;
- * comment on or react to the content of the written word;
- * decide on content orally, write it down, then pass it on to be read by someone else;
- * listen to something on tape, then write it down etc.

The possibilities are very varied and hopefully can be made purposeful and entertaining. If this is achieved, then surely those we teach will see that the reason for learning a foreign language is to be able to communicate using a variety of skills to a variety of people. They should also be persuaded that learning a foreign language can be fun and worthwhile.

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Notes

1. For full details of a tape link between schools see Jones, Barry (ed): *Using authentic resources in teaching French*. London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research, 1984.

2. A variety of 'listening and reporting' and 'listening and explaining' activities can be found in Jones, Barry: *Ecouter*. York: Edupub, The Green, Clifton, York, 1986.

3. For a number of 'reading and telling' activities see: Jones, Barry: *Parler*. York: Edupub, The Green, Clifton, York, 1986.

4. A number of activities which involve 'piecing together evidence' can be found in Jones, Barry: *Découvertes 1, A vous de décider*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1981.

5. The potential of using throw-away paper materials in language learning is discussed in an article on the subject. See Jones, Barry: 'Le Jeu des Poubelles' in *Journal of the National Association of Language Advisers*, Number 7, 1976, p34-38.

6. This example is quoted with acknowledgements to the Cambridgeshire teachers David Faulkner, Cynthia Stickels and Iain Mitchell, who were seconded to Homerton College to develop the GCSE Mode III syllabus for use within the county. Special thanks are due to Iain Mitchell for this particular page.

7. Collections like *Bibliobus* for French and *Lesekiste* for German are available from Mary Glasgow Publications, London.

No call for CALL? 20th century technology for 19th century language teaching methodology?

Eric Brown

If the traditional linear approach to language teaching, with its emphasis on accuracy and the mastery of grammar, lexis and syntax, saw the foreign language as the message, the newer communicative approach to language learning regards language as the medium. The learning process is thus a means, not an end in itself, and the shift in emphasis is from teaching to learning. The purpose of learning a language is to do something with it, to communicate meaning with the intention of achieving specific ends. To reach a level of mastery that will enable them to communicate effectively, learners must engage in a number of linguistic activities, which will be multi-skill rather than discrete-skill operations, practise real-life tasks with real people in real contexts, and be exposed to a range of authentic written and spoken forms of the target language. The purpose of this contribution is to show how the new educational technology can contribute significantly to the language learning process of fulfilling these requirements, and to make a case for computer-assisted language learning (CALL). At a time when educational resources are limited and heads of department must list their priorities with care, any acquisition, especially one as costly as a piece of technical equipment, has to be central, not peripheral, to language learning if its purchase is to be justified.

This contribution will place its emphasis on CALL as the embodiment, though not sole exponent, of the new technology and it will illustrate the role of the computer, either by itself or in conjunction with other equipment, i.e. interactive video, videotex and electronic mail, in enhancing language learning. There will also be a section on the use of satellite broadcasting in the foreign language classroom.

Technological advance is an irresistible and inevitable force. In consequence, computerisation is already part of everyday reality and will become increasingly so with the accelerating pace of current technological developments. Small wonder that school pupils are fascinated by the microcomputer and, recognising how these changes will affect their adult lives, evince a desire to learn about computerisation for its own sake and buy home computers. As Davies comments:

By the end of this century, it is conceivable that anyone who is unfamiliar with a computer keyboard will be as ill-equipped to cope with the demands of everyday life as someone today who is unable to read and write.¹

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Being computer-literate or 'computerate' by the end of this century will be as important as knowing the three Rs was at the beginning of the century, and so school subjects which appear to make great use of the microcomputer acquire an aura of modernity and considerable prestige in the pupils' eyes. Since more pupils took an 'O' level in Computer Studies than in German in 1984, the popularity of computer-related courses may have been at the expense of modern language options. If, however, computer applications such as information technology can be incorporated into language courses, perhaps through TVEI-linked initiatives, it may be to the advantage of modern languages. Heads of modern language departments should not hurriedly introduce computers just to be fashionable and match the challenge offered by the curriculum disciplines; they should, however, accept that the computer has a role to play in their subject and employ it in ways that are conducive to good learning.

How do modern language teachers regard CALL? Feedback derived from a number of questionnaires collected by CILT and from contact with teachers on in-service training courses would suggest that they fall into two categories: they belong either to the tiny minority of committed enthusiasts who have taught themselves to program and who, each in his own small corner, are turning out similar drill-and-practice programs, or to the vast majority of ordinary teachers with neither the time nor the inclination to pursue an interest in what they see as automated programmed learning, a method underpinned by the audio-lingual method of language learning and supported by behaviourist learning theories. Since this method turned many of them off the language laboratory as a teaching aid a decade or so ago, and since language learning methodology today has as its goal the achievement of communicative competence, there seems little room for technology which merely assists a conscious manipulation of a linguistic code and would appear to place more emphasis on learning about language than on learning language, and on accuracy rather than fluency. Coupled with this scepticism, many teachers also hold the microcomputer in awe, a phenomenon which contrasts starkly with the confidence and ease with which their pupils handle this new technological aid.

The reader may well wonder how something as unoriginal as the drill-and-practice program, which is uncharitably called the drill-and-kill program, has come to exemplify CALL. The reason is not hard to find. Such programs have flooded the market because it requires little imagination to program a computer to perform mechanical tasks, and relatively little time to produce the sort of program that is little more than a mathematical calculation whose accuracy it is easy to check. Such programs, which are frequently snapped up by examination-minded consumers, tell us something about how some programmers see the user and how they imagine the learning process to be. Satisfied by quick financial returns, they do not bother to consider the versatility of the computer or to tap its true potential.

If the computer did teach by such sterile methods as the textbook- or tape-based pattern drill, there would be good reason, as my title suggests, to reject CALL out of hand as an outdated and discredited concept cloaked in modern technology. By contrast, however, the computer does perform this function effectively and promotes learning in the process. Its real benefit as a

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programmed learning device is that it is an infinitely patient tutor and a very responsive book, proceeding at the learner's pace, not reacting until he/she has responded to the initial stimulus and providing pattern matches (i.e. dashes or stars in places of the hidden letters), immediate feedback and also guidance, if required, in the form of diagnostic routines and remedial re-runs. In addition, its graphics can illustrate a point vividly, be it in the capacity of an animated flashcard or to denote inversion in German word order or to highlight endings in a different colour. Normally, such practice routines become a form of drudgery, especially if undertaken by one teacher with a class of thirty. The computer, however, in its role of slave, can manage this task indefinitely, while the teacher, as master of operations and supervisor of the class, is free to go from one small group to another, checking that learning is taking place and offering undivided attention where it is needed. The pupils are fascinated by not knowing what is coming next and motivated by the immediate feedback from the computer, the opportunity to get it right on the second attempt, the chance to do the drill again and get a perfect score or beat the infernal machine (sometimes enlisting the teacher's aid in the process) and by the dynamic presentation of the exercise: it is these features which make the pupils keep coming back for more and which the cold print in the static textbook just cannot compete with.

Judiciously employed, the computer can transform routine language operations and thus drill-and-practice activity can be successfully integrated into learning activities. Communicative competence is a more worthwhile goal than mere mastery of linguistic form, but pupils cannot be expected to generate utterances in new situations if they have no idea of structure or are inhibited because they do not have at their mental fingertips the appropriate form of the lexical item: this power of immediate recall may, however, be established through drilling.

Seen as a mere drillmaster, the computer acquires a somewhat authoritarian character and the learning it engenders seems regimented. If regarded as a question master, it acquires a more positive image and one that conveys more positive associations of challenge and fun, like the games based on such question-and-answer routines. Ultimately, though, the computer is seeking the same end, albeit in different guises: to discover if the learner knows the right answer or not. Quiz-type programs are very apt at testing vocabulary (e.g. correct spelling), verbal paradigms (e.g. correct endings and grammar (e.g. matching up jumbled sequences of clauses and sub-clauses) because they can easily check for accuracy and respond with a positive or negative signal. Multiple-choice tests can also be easily produced using purpose-designed authoring packages. Not all programs simply test recall, but may require the learner to do something with the words to be learnt, e.g. restore anagrams, match synonyms or do crosswords. Pupils often find learning vocabulary a dull task, and so any means of motivating them to do so should not be overlooked. Nevertheless, there is a danger in concentrating on the individual element at the expense of seeing language in a wider, more real context. The authoring package 'Wordstore', which enables the learner to create a personal dictionary, helps to redress this balance. The learner, or the class, may enter up to 1000 new

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words on to a disk, together with a self-created definition and a sentence showing the previously unknown word in context. The program also contains a test option, whereby the user must enter the correct keyword to identify a randomly displayed context-sentence. Active handling of the language is a better means of retention than passive learning.

Other programs of a questionmaster type enable learners to understand words in context, to check their general reading comprehension, to skim and scan and even to discover meaning. They require them to restore deleted words, reorder jumbled sentences or paragraphs, reconstitute an entire text and read at speed.

The computer is the ideal machine for creating cloze tests, and does so without difficulty and with a difference. Since programs such as 'Gapfil' or 'Gapkit' are authoring packages the teacher can devise the text to suit her learners' ability level; in some cases, she can even specify which words are to be deleted and concentrate on nouns, verbs, etc. The programs also encourage learner autonomy. The pupil may choose the frequency of the gap between every fifth and fifteenth word and as competence grows, may increase the frequency of deletion.

It is a short step from the typical cloze test to the total cloze test, e.g. 'Storyboard' or 'Copywrite', which are also authoring packages. After displaying the chosen text for a length of time of the learners' choosing, the program causes it to vanish from the screen and requires them to restore it completely. In an effort to do so, they employ strategies of recall, inference and analogy, form hypotheses, make deductions based on previous knowledge and, perhaps unconsciously, think about the grammatical function of given words. The program offers help in the form of clues, i.e. first letter of a word, or by recalling the entire text if it is requested.

Hitherto, the examples have demonstrated the computer's potential to monitor controlled learning and help the learner to consolidate and revise acquired knowledge. Any writing required has been limited and equally strictly controlled. This is primarily because the computer is programmed to match input with the entries in its memory and so cannot cope with any originality on the user's part. In some cases, alternatives can be catered for, although a synonym of different length from the expected word answer would not be acceptable in a cloze activity. Fuzzy matching, a technique allowing for computer tolerance to cope with slight inaccuracies in spelling, e.g. Browne from Brown, can be programmed, but if the program is to serve as a language model, its use of fuzzy matching must surely be limited to, say, simple exercises for remedial learners to give them a sense of achievement and allow them to progress through the program.

Controlled production is a necessary precursor to creative writing. To complement the TVEI Vocational French course developed in Hertfordshire, the program 'French Correspondence' has been written; it helps pupils to produce a range of model letters of a personal or business nature. It is a reading comprehension exercise, requiring the user to identify the right components of a particular letter and assemble them on the screen to form a complete version, which can be printed out. There are also guided writing programs which present

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a stimulus and allow the learner to attain mastery through a gradual reduction of support in ratio to a growing familiarity with the content. The 'Fun with Texts' package is a multi-activity program with features like gap-filling, word-encoding, and text reconstitution, which makes it possible for the teacher to exploit a text in many ways and ensures that the learner who completes the activities makes its content his own, by gaining a deeper understanding of spelling, structure, register, etc.

Writing in any language, especially a foreign one, is a daunting, and for some learners, demoralising experience and their memory of school is of pages covered in red ink, indicating their degree of failure to write accurately. Paradoxically, therefore, at a time when teachers are welcoming the new GCSE syllabuses because they lessen the dominance of writing, the means now exist to transform pupils' attitudes to writing and make it a positive, productive and successful experience. The means is the word processor, and its wider implementation in schools could lead to more, not less writing.

The word processor, which resembles a typewriter-cum-TV screen with a memory, enables the user to store and manipulate text. (The examples given earlier of the pupils creating a personal dictionary or of the teacher devising texts on a 'Copywrite' authoring package are forms of word-processing.) Fitted with a word-processing package, the computer becomes an electronic book of blank pages on which input can be considered, erased, amended, rearranged and then saved. The first draft remains on the screen and, in the important intermediate stage, becomes a focus for discussion with the teacher, with subsequent insertions, deletions, changes of word, etc, before the last stage, when a final, error-free clean copy is printed out. The screen display is far more suited than is a piece of paper to looking at text, and the ensuring discussion-and-amendment session is a far simpler and more productive one than rewriting a corrected essay on paper would be. With the 'Folio' package users can write in a number of foreign languages, avail themselves of a number of type faces and type-sizes and produce columns. It would be easy to design a classroom newspaper with it. Alternatively, by means of micro-viewdata software, a miniature PRESTEL look-alike could be set up in the language department. This would serve as an electronic noticeboard with pages of news of past and future events, which pupils could access through a keypad. The pupils could also be involved in the creation process, by writing the news and entering it on to the disk, which would require word-processing and design skills.

Word-processing is a liberating experience for pupils, and one in which they are freed from the tight control of the normal program to express themselves. In addition, they are developing keyboard and writing skills and thereby acquiring life-skills in a practical age. The teacher can also use word-processing to good effect, in text creation or authoring packages and in making alternative versions of teaching materials and worksheets, through making amendments on-screen of originals and printing out the revised forms. Leonard² highlights one of the drawbacks of many word-processing packages: their complicated mode of operation involving mastery of certain key-combinations to execute essential commands which is a laborious and off-putting procedure. Her

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solution is a concept keyboard with an overlay marked out in squares, each containing an essential command which can be executed at a touch.

The Secondary Examinations Council's draft grade criteria for French and German require language learners to be familiar with authentic spoken and written forms of the target language, to study its culture and background, and to accomplish realistic written tasks in it. Electronic communications media can bring the reality of the foreign country to learners, giving them instant access to authentic databases and enabling them to write and send real messages to their peers abroad.

Databases provide reference material and background information which can prompt discussion of a certain topic with a view to writing about it later, or generate role-playing activities, e.g. using authentic timetables to plan visits to a region or deciding which activities to undertake there based on the weather forecast. Access to TELETEL, the French videotex service, puts learners in immediate touch with a database that is a mine of frequently updated information on a range of topics intended for French users. The contents, and the language, are authentic; consequently, on some on-screen pages, accents are missed off and the syntax is curious.

Pauleau comments how at the level of basic transactional interaction in authentic everyday situations, the reading skills necessary to interact with a computer terminal are replacing the spoken word:

... learners have to accomplish linguistic tasks like booking a seat on a TGV, interacting with a railway-ticket dispensing machine, scanning the videotex Bottin ELECTRONIQUE for relevant information, or ordering food or goods on the TELETEL services from a catalogue firm.³

TELETEL gives access to French life and culture in printed form at the flick of a switch: sports coverage; speeches from members of the Government, and even the latest INSEE figures on the French economy. TELETEL is thus a resource for all levels of language learner and can be exploited to provide material, which may be downloaded off the screen and saved for further use on disk, for GCSE, the new 'A' level syllabuses and university courses. (Problems of copyright on downloaded materials if used for wider circulation have yet to be addressed.)

Provided the teacher has a modem, a device which allows her computer to communicate with another computer over a telephone line, the use of a telephone line and the appropriate software, she can access TELETEL without difficulty - but whichever means are employed to secure that access, it is at present costly. In addition, she should obtain a copy of LISTEL, the directory of the service, in order to target access effectively and not to spend unnecessary time and money exploring a vast database for appropriate material. A compromise solution, which will give the potential user a flavour of the system and the means of exploiting TELETEL information for language work, is EMUTEL, a piece of stand-alone (i.e. no telephone link required) emulation software containing a sample of 60 pages from TELETEL, which illustrate its variety and richness. The teacher merely buys the disk, but must accept that such material will date.

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Just as a modem-and-telephone link gives the computer access to a database system, so, too, it permits one computer to communicate with another via an electronic mailbox, and one user to transmit messages or other written information to a fellow user in Britain or abroad. The electronic mailbox, which belongs to a network system like The Times Network System (TTNS), receives and pigeonholes the incoming message until the addressee collects it. To avail themselves of this service, and the database facilities offered by TTNS (which include French and German resource materials for exploitation), users must pay an annual subscription to the system, purchase its modem and meet the cost of local calls. The initial cost is high to individuals though not if borne collectively by an LEA, and on-going costs can mount according to use.

At present, TTNS users can only exchange mail with users of network systems that are part of the Dialcom network, e.g. Telebox in West Germany or Infotex in Canada. However, an internationally agreed messaging standard for electronic mail, known as 'X.400', now exists and its widespread implementation should facilitate national and international communications. This, nevertheless, may take many years. In the meantime, TTNS is investigating other means of linking European countries.

The potential of electronic mail, or E-Mail, should not be ignored, even if modern language teachers cannot yet access all the countries that they would like to. E-Mail may be the pen-pal service of the future, a way of arranging school exchanges or a means of rapidly conveying relevant and up-to-date background studies information across frontiers from school to school. It will certainly allow learners, who may never visit the foreign country whose language they are learning, to undertake genuine tasks of a communicative nature in the target language with their peers. As Hewer points out in her report on the success of the first electronic mail-link effected between her school in Sleaford and the *Lycée Classique* in Diekirch, Luxembourg, knowing that their letters will be read is an excellent reason for young people actually writing them.⁴ Her hope is that that part of future letters which is written by English pupils in French will be based on examination topic-areas, and that letters received from Luxembourg will form part of a bank of authentic materials. She warns, however, of the time taken to produce the letters prior to their dispatch and of the demands made upon those involved.

The computer cannot assist the learners' spoken production directly, in that it cannot talk naturally with them or interpret implied meaning. Great developments are taking place in speech synthesis and speech recognition, which give the impression that the computer can perform intelligently by delivering meaningful messages and understanding the human voice, but this is merely an impression. Speech-synthesis is pre-programmed, computer-generated language that is not always intelligible, while in speech recognition the computer responds appropriately to a restricted range of commands from a voice which it has been trained to recognise. The difficulties encountered by the computer in translating bear witness to its inability to cope with meaning. By way of example, the English idiom 'Out of sight, out of mind' was translated into French as '*L'idiot invisible*' and into Russian as 'blind drunk'.

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The computer can assist the learner to master intonation by a process of gradual approximation. A sound stimulus is given and the model intonation-pattern produced on the screen. The learner's attempt then appears alongside the model pattern, and the ensuing visual feedback, as the learner matches his performance with the original, helps him to progress.

By providing stimuli which encourage discussion off the screen, the computer assists speaking indirectly. Barry Jones of Homerton College, Cambridge, has been conducting research into the use of language off the screen and has recorded pupils' linguistic output. As a consequence of his initial findings, he has taught his learners the appropriate language in French to handle the keyboard and cope with the programs to enable speaking to go on in the target language. Another factor affecting foreign language production is the presence on the screen of the target language in the instructions for use and in the contents of the program itself. It is important that such language, if serving as a model, should not be in the form of telegraphese, e.g. TAKE AXE. The constant exposure to the target language will oblige the learners to read and understand it before making their collective decisions, and may lead to the target language being uppermost in their minds when they vocalise their course of action. Additionally, the presence of the target language will help to eliminate code-switching between English and the foreign language.

Types of computer-generated activity which promote off-screen discussion, apart from the role-playing activity or serious debate prompted by videotex pages, are language mazes, adventure games and simulations. A language maze is a branching story with one correct route and a number of blind alleys into which an incorrect decision will take the player. Adventure games, e.g. 'The Dark Castle' (with its original and easily operated French-English reference-dictionary facility) and *Schloß Schattenburg* are, in principle, similar, although there may be more graphics than text and a suspension of disbelief may be required if the learner is to take part. As Leonard remarks: *How often do you meet a gnome with an axe on the way home from the Jobcentre?*² - or, for that matter, *die grünen Nelken* (the green carnations) of *Schloß Schattenburg*? In many cases, simulations put the player in a situation that may be encountered in real life and oblige him to play out the appropriate role and take the right decisions to achieve a successful outcome. Simulations are open-ended activities and various options are available to the players involved, who may take roles. 'Granville' is a very absorbing and imaginative simulation, requiring the user, who has won a five-day drip to Granville, to spend time undertaking a variety of activities that could, in fact, be encountered on a real visit abroad. As Case Study 5 in *CALL for the Computer*⁵ reveals, 'Granville' is a CALL resource which has been exploited in one school across the ability range and up to Sixth form level.

All these language-generating programs require careful preparation (i.e. vocabulary, language structures and functions), classroom management (allotting roles and monitoring output) and follow-up (reporting back and writing an essay), if they are to work successfully. The problem of excited learners lapsing into their mother tongue is a common one. Jones and Fortescue⁶ suggest that the learners might sit at a table apart from the micro

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and, in their appointed roles, discuss a course of action before instructing the keyboard operator to execute their command. He subsequently reports the consequences back to them.

The computer can do little at present to enhance listening. There are examples where a cassette recorder has been linked to a program and the computer has monitored the learner's inputted response, but they are of limited application: a dictation; entering the correct train times in response to a simulated loudspeaker announcement; moving a figure across a map to a certain spot in accordance with a set of spoken instructions. Higgins and Johns⁷ suggest a more open-ended activity whereby a micro could control the tape recorder and provide a more 'dynamic' model of good note-taking practice: the learner hears the lecture and, at intervals when the computer stops the tape, sees on-screen notes. The aim is to help him to distinguish between the important and the incidental. The Kennings⁸ envisage a similar form of skill training, whereby the cassette recorder provides a simulated telephone message and the user types notes on to the screen. Another model of computer-generated note-taking is by interactive video. The unpublished Eurocentre disk 'Getting the message' shows someone answering the phone, taking a message in note form, reading the message back to the caller via the notes, and then writing out the full message for the person who was not at home to take the call. In this example, the visual element reinforces the audio stimulus and the interactive process, whereby the learner can proceed through the contents as he chooses, enables him to familiarise himself with them.

In interactive video applications, the videodisk, which has an enormous capacity for visual stimuli and an accompanying audio commentary, is controlled by the micro, which gives the learner great freedom of access to its content and great autonomy over how it is used. Learners can choose their route through the contents, retracing their steps whenever necessary, undertaking a variety of language activities and encountering language in real situations. Interactive video is a valuable and potentially exciting individualised learning-device, whose current high cost hinders its accessibility to a wider constituency of users.

Television by satellite is another means of obtaining authentic and up-to-date material for exploitation in the foreign language classroom. (With the aid of the 'Autotutor' authoring package, the right equipment and a knowledge of the authoring language Microtext, the teacher can record off air and create interactive video material.) While teachers acknowledge the value of televised material in the foreign language, they are faced with the not inconsiderable expense of acquiring, installing and licensing the necessary equipment to take advantage of satellite broadcasting. A low-cost 'backyard' dish system is priced between £500 and £2,000; the purchase of three or four monitors will amount to over £1,000, and a Government licence costs £10. Having bought and set up their dish, however, they will be able to receive TV5 (French), Sat Eins and 3 Sat (German), RAI Uno (Italian), and Gorizont (Russian) for which specialised equipment will also be required. With the advent this year (1988) of DBS (direct broadcasting by satellite) systems, the price may fall slightly as consumers will

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need smaller dishes for reception. To keep abreast of developments, the reader should read the monthly publication *Satellite TV Europe*.

Likely developments are an indefinite number of television channels, available to the consumer willing to pay for them and obtainable either direct or via cable companies through fibre optic cable, and encrypting of signals. Some producers are encrypting or scrambling their signals, which obliges the consumer to buy decoding equipment, and other producers may follow suit. The channels above have not envisaged encrypting, though. At present, a lot of material is easily available: the problem remains how to review it and how best to use it.

The appearance of High Definition Television (HDTV) with its 1250-line, massive wall-screen is imminent and will greatly enhance the showing of televised output to large classes. By contrast, although such improved visibility will enable CALL programs to be shown to an entire class, their place is rather in a workshop environment where they form part of a circus of activities for small groups. There is also a place for a personal study area where individuals can select from a carefully chosen library of good software and use the programs as a supportive learning resource.

Familiarity breeds contentment. Time should be given in initial and in-service training to familiarising prospective and practising teachers with computers in order to rid them of their anxiety. Computers are very robust and rarely break down; well-designed software requires little technical knowledge on the teacher's part to run; it takes little time to master a few keyboard operations, which will enable the teacher to load and run programs and, if something goes wrong, teachers can always swallow their pride and ask one of the pupils to help them out. Teachers should also familiarise themselves with the content of programs in order to choose the right program for a particular class and to think out appropriate and even original ways of using them.

It is important that a mechanism exist whereby software can be evaluated within an LEA so that teachers may be informed of good programs; that could be the role of a teachers' centre, which could include reports on software in the termly bulletin for language teachers and also house a library of software programs for teachers to inspect on site.

Few teachers devise their own coursebooks and just as few need produce their own software programs by learning how to program. This is a meticulous and time-consuming operation which recommends itself only to the enthusiast. Teachers could, on the other hand, employ authoring programs effectively in the production of class-oriented materials. An authoring program is a template, a skeleton which teachers flesh out with content of their own choice suited to the level of the target class. Feedback allows them to modify these contents subsequently. What textbooks are as easily updatable and what tapes as readily adaptable? And the finished materials never fade, unlike OHP transparencies.

There are few good programs and too many are gimmicky in design. Pupils soon tire of flashing words and loony tunes in response to a correct answer, and they often require more support than the error messages given by some programs. Perhaps expanded computer memories and disk capacities will lead to the production of programs that show greater sensitivity for near misses and

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allow for alternative answers. Programmers and teachers need to collaborate in program design so that imaginative software can be produced. Nevertheless, software design is a costly business, and volumes of sales are not such as to encourage publishing houses to invest in this area.

The spectre of cost looms ominously over the availability of the new technology, but costs will fall. We are at the start of the Computer Revolution and should profit from what we can now do cheaply and effectively to enhance language learning, and maintain an interest in the technological developments, in order to take advantage of future opportunities.

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Pre-Vocational Courses from 14 onwards

Isabel De Sudea

Not all change has taken place in the traditional 11-16 classroom with the advent of GCSE and the subject-related criteria. Efforts have also been made to extend the opportunity to study a language in a vocational context and, what is more, to make the learning more appropriate to those who would normally drop out.

Curricular innovation of this type, which allows for a more applied approach to language learning, is normally associated with the post-16 age group. However, there is increasing recognition that the same approach can and should be provided earlier in school and the opportunity to do so is offered especially through the Government Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI).

TVEI began as a pilot scheme; its rapid expansion and in particular the TVE Extension (TVEE) from September 1988 mean that the influence of the principles embodied in the scheme will be far-reaching. As Jim Holroyd¹ says:

Although TRIST [TVEI-Related In-Service Training] has done much to spread these principles in most Local Education Authorities, many modern linguists remain unaware of them or feel they are largely inapplicable to languages... As far as modern languages are concerned, it is the experience of those few Local Education Authorities that have developed TVEI modern language schemes pre-16 that there is something to be gained by more pupils, but particularly by those aiming at GCSE basic level!

The recently published Government Policy Statement² concerning the place of languages in the National Curriculum which states that the learning of a foreign language will form part of the normal school curriculum between the ages of 11 and 16 means that in future all such vocational programmes in schools will contain a language element. At present languages are very poorly represented in these programmes, so that the implications embodied in the new policy are far-reaching:

Local Education Authorities and schools should take steps now to make continuation of a modern foreign language one of the compulsory elements of the 14-16 curriculum for the great majority of pupils. They should also ensure that careers advice is available to show how foreign languages relate to a variety of careers so that pupils become aware of the value of a language as an ancillary skill. (Para. 20)

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It is all too often the opportunity to embark upon such courses that affords many pupils the opportunity to opt out of languages. The pupils following these courses often represent the groups with the largest drop-out rate in the field of languages, namely the less motivated pupil, and boys in particular.

Although this may sound like a fundamental change in approach, in fact the principles embodied in TVEI, the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE) and related developments are no more than a logical outcome of the new approach to language teaching/learning that has been evolving gradually, since the early 70s. Perhaps the one distinguishing feature is the pre-vocational emphasis on the content element. However, with a few exceptions, most TVEI courses stress that since most learners at fourteen do not have specific vocational needs, the first two years of the course will be of a largely general nature.

The implementation of GCSE has clarified, strengthened and further elaborated most of the underlying principles for this age cohort. It is at the 16+ stage that most impact has been made to date, for it is here that a start can be made to bridge the gulf between school and work.

It is important to note that as with GCSE and other curricular innovations, the principles cannot be first put into practice at age 14-16 and that such objectives must be fostered at all stages, ages and levels in the learning process.

The underlying philosophy and principles

If we accept that we are in transition from an industrial age to a technological age, then what is to be the school's response? Do we still organise the school day, the timetable, the classroom, movement in the corridors, as we did forty years ago? Are we to play an integral part in the appropriate development of young people or are we to court the danger of cocooning them in an island of obsolescence, unaffected by the advance of time or change in the wider world outside?

The curriculum debate of the last decade has covered many themes, and TVEI and CPVE *inter alia* are natural developments that have resulted from the continuing discussions. Clear similarities between TVEI and CPVE as design frameworks for pre-vocational education can be identified. Indeed, in-service staff development needs in many cases have been similar, and there are examples of CPVE designed for the 17+ age group, being dovetailed into TVEI 14-18 provision.

These initiatives have brought sharply into focus learning strategies, assessment and the relationship of learning and work. Their common purpose is to **learn by doing**.

In order to carry out the objective effectively, greater emphasis is placed on developing initiative, motivation and enterprise as well as problem-solving skills and other aspects of personal development. These, in turn, require that there should be a more adult approach to learning, with the teacher acting as facilitator rather than dominating the lesson. This devolves the responsibility for learning on to the students to negotiate what they want/need to learn and to plan and organise work accordingly. Such learning strategies necessitate the

implementation of continuous and/or self assessment centred around a profiling form and clear learning objectives. This has encouraged a modular design for each course, presented in clearly comprehensible stages. In this respect, divisions between different curriculum areas have become blurred and subjects are perceived more as interdependent and no longer in isolation. This has also helped to break down the academic/vocational divide as both a general and a technical vocational element are encouraged in programme content. (One big criticism so far, however, is the over-emphasis of technical and vocational education to the exclusion of general education.)

Finally, links between school and the world of work are to be fostered and developed in order to encourage the understanding of the practical applications and the qualifications and skills which will be of direct value at work and in society generally.

Active learning

Perhaps the most crucial aspect for teachers is how to create situations which will motivate and stimulate language learning. Before considering some of these in detail, it is as well to add that one simultaneous development has been the need to construct an assessment record or profile as an integral part of the learning process.

Active learning techniques seek to further the main aim of foreign language learning, which is to communicate. Since communication only really takes place when real messages are passed, active learning devises situations in which there is a genuine information gap, where students do not already know the answer to the question they are asking. A necessary feature of this approach lies in the students' sense of involvement in their own learning and their interaction with their fellow learners.

The two fundamental principles underlying these activities are:

- a) the essential cooperation of students one with another either in groups or in pairs in order to listen to partners, pass on information, make consensus decisions, persuade others or form opinions themselves;
- b) the focus of attention on the task to be carried out, not primarily on the language itself. In other words, the crux is not **what** to talk about but **why** you need to talk about it.

These are the main strategies that have been incorporated into many schemes of work. It is difficult to categorise with any precision the types of courses on offer as no two are exactly alike. So far, three types of courses appear to be emerging:

1. those which treat language as a useful adjunct with a vocational bias linked to other curricular areas and which thus become a module or series of modules;

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2. the one- or two-year course incorporating assignments or groups of tasks linked to topic areas (usually in the 14-16 age range with only a discreet vocational element);
3. courses with a definite vocational emphasis being developed as 'business' ventures or 'industrial exchanges'.

All three types lead to recognised certification and all three stress the use of authentic resources.

Forms of accreditation within TVEI courses

TVEI represents an approach, an integration of the curriculum, but is not a form of accreditation. It does, however, demand that all elements within a programme should lead to a nationally recognised qualification. It falls, therefore, to the organisers of each scheme to decide upon the most appropriate form of accreditation.

Some of the existing Graded Objectives schemes have been updated and revised and have become a modular syllabus which has been incorporated into TVEI proposals. Some of these are seeking validation with the GCSE boards and are all including some modules on the world of work at the higher levels. Assessment varies but is mostly concerned with continuous assessment and with creating a positive profile of what has been achieved. As yet, it is too early to evaluate these modular syllabuses as most are still in embryo or early infancy. However, this does appear to be a way forward to create a balance between the general, technical and vocational elements suitable to the student's individual needs.

There are other schemes which are accredited by the RSA, Institute of Linguists, Pitman Examinations Institute, or London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board (LCCI) (see Appendix II for details of qualifications), and other schemes still which offer accreditation to the whole course on an integrated basis through the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC)/City & Guilds pre-vocational programme.

The courses are devised by the centre responsible according to BTEC/City & Guilds guidelines and can be designed to suit the particular needs of students within a local setting. This scheme has been piloted in some 70 schools and, in 1987, over 800 centres started courses in areas from Wiltshire to Durham. Some schools organise the programme on a consortia basis with other schools or FE colleges. The courses cover four main areas: People, Technology, Arts and Design, and Money. The programmes can be taken in combination with GCSE or may occupy all the timetable. The foundation programme runs over a two-year period in the fourth and fifth years. (See Appendix II for further details of the scheme.)

Any language element follows the same guidelines as the rest of the course. At present languages are very poorly represented among these courses, and in the light of the demands of the National Curriculum this would seem to be an

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area of potential development in offering a modern foreign language to all pupils up to the age of sixteen.

Other schemes, such as Hampshire Business Studies and Buckinghamshire's Graded Objectives, are seeking accreditation with GCSE and are pursuing the possibility of cross-curricular modular provision linking languages with Business Studies and/or Craft Design Technology.

Some examples of language study in pre-vocational courses

Stoke-on-Trent's Commercial and Industrial Languages Project (CILP) is designed for mixed ability groups as part of Staffordshire's Shared Business Experience (SBE). This is supported by three other courses: Social and Life Skills, Place Studies, and Communications. It has been described as a 'composite course which is modular in design'. It is delivered to students on the untimetabled day. Three languages are offered, German, Spanish and Italian, all *ab initio*, with Russian in preparation. Students are required to perform four tasks from a choice of six:

- using the East Midlands Airport
- using a railway station
- booking in at a hotel
- a business transaction
- ordering in a restaurant
- visiting a factory

Level One of CILP is designed to meet the general vocational needs of students and has now been validated by the RSA. The tasks can be taken in any order and students have twenty hours to prepare themselves. The student and teacher establish what skills and knowledge (both linguistic and cultural) will be required. Arrangements are made with the outside agencies for the task performance and assessment. In one task, 'At the airport', for example, the student is required to purchase a ticket, check details, enquire after directions, check-in luggage, choose a seat, obtain a boarding pass, negotiate passport control and demonstrate an understanding of departure announcements. All this takes place in the target language. The student's performance is observed by the teacher, the coordinator and the project leader (assessed in turn by random visits from RSA moderators), and after they have conferred, a decision is taken as to whether to award a pass, fail or distinction.

An interesting scheme has been devised at the Institute of European Education, Lancaster. This has a modular form which can be used as a self-contained scheme in its own right or as an element of a wider course. Each module is self-contained and no previous knowledge is assumed. The aim of the scheme is to provide the learner with the basic linguistic and social skills required to cater for the needs of foreign visitors to Britain in defined tourist or work situations. To qualify for certification, students have to cover the compulsory core module, 'Initial contacts with foreign visitors', plus one or more of the following optional modules:

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Working in a shop or store;
bar/restaurant;
accommodation/ reception;
tourist information;
a garage or service station;
transport/customer services;
helping in emergencies.

The scheme is validated by 'The Preliminary Certificate of Modern Language Skills for Work', issued by the Institute. A summative profile statement on the certificate will record both the linguistic and personal skills demonstrated.

The Lord Grey School at Milton Keynes has developed a Business French course which leads to FLAW certification. For this purpose they have created an imaginary company called 'Greylord Electric' which supplies electrical parts to car and commercial vehicle manufacturers. The student has to play the part of an employee and has access to a catalogue, order forms and headed note paper. The units of work are as follows:

- a) the boss goes abroad (travel, accommodation, car hire);
- b) business as usual (correspondence, orders, messages, interviews);
- c) the business trip (transactional exchanges for travel accommodation, shopping, illness, entertainments, sightseeing, business lunches);
- d) the aftermath (thanks, complaints, lost property, contracts);
- e) the return visit (a factory visit, arrangements, socialising).

Although this is only a simulated work experience it has the backing of a limited number of companies, both French and British, who have either provided financial assistance or materials.

The Wirral TVEI course has been extended to 16+ and also follows the same idea of setting up a company, but this time the activities are no longer simulated, they are real. The 'agency' actually processes jobs sent in by outside clients. Having advertised locally, they receive translations, interpret documents, compose letters, advise on visits to France, assist in planning routes, booking accommodation and so on. The sympathetic outside clients have been briefed as to the type of work suitable. In addition, the work is 'filtered' during the course to ensure that the tasks are within the students' capabilities and that a representative range of tasks is covered. An important feature of this course is that the students organise themselves, plotting their progress on a wall chart and filing all documents, which can later be an invaluable source of 'authentic' material.

Although organised for the post-16 age group, the Emden Hillingdon Industrial Exchange is an exciting new venture. This has been built on to the already thriving exchange between Hillingdon and its twin town, Emden. With the help of the Mayors and Chambers of Commerce from both towns, programmes, which included visits to factories, work shadowing, a newspaper simulation exercise and a visit to the TUC, were drawn up and students were

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paired according to their interests. The students were all able to do work experience in Emden. This industrial exchange will form part of the TVEI course and is also on offer for the Lower Sixth generally.

The examples cited illustrate just how difficult it is to categorise these schemes as they can be used in a variety of ways. Several Local Education Authorities have designed courses based on 'assignments', which comprise sets of varied exercises grouped by means of a common theme. These are especially useful to the 14-16 age group as they incorporate for the most part the topic areas of GCSE and lead to this form of certification. However, from the more interesting examples available it would appear that a common trend has been to incorporate these assignments into a 'real' situation so that what is learned is determined by the context, an approach which aims to counteract the position which has so far obtained with traditional courses. Needless to say, the degree to which this 'real' situation prevails varies considerably.

Further developments

The RSA, in conjunction with the Dorset and Oxfordshire TVEI units, the Southern Regional Examining Board and the Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, is embarking on a project to develop appropriate accreditation packages for the whole 14-18 age group. The project has as its main aims: to develop a methodology to accredit each individual student's achievement with an appropriate combination of both GCSE and vocational certification; to provide certification for 'elements' of 'A' level courses which may be combined to produce accreditation by 'A' level, or vocational certificates, or both.

TVEI, CPVE and related developments have brought a variety of problems and issues into sharp focus. At the very least, they have reinforced trends in foreign language teaching which, though desirable in themselves, have made little impact in many conventional classrooms. At best they have allowed much valuable experimentation in course structure and methodology to take place.

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SECTION III

EXPANDING THE HORIZON

LANGUAGE AWARENESS

Richard Aplin

Historical background

If language is one aspect of our experience that marks us as being different from other life forms, and if it has the importance in human life with which it is commonly attributed, it is remarkable how little study there is of it as a phenomenon within the school curriculum. It is the area now known as Language Awareness which has evolved with, in some cases the intent, and in all cases the effect, of filling this lacuna.

Eric Hawkins, in his handbook on the subject (Hawkins, 1984), identifies two major anxieties about the language education offered to children during the 1970s. One of these, the realisation that schools were failing children who did not have adequate language skills for learning, led to the establishment of the Bullock Committee in 1972. Its report in 1976 called for the setting-up of language policies in schools, and made the term 'Language across the curriculum' a common shibboleth in the education world. The second anxiety mentioned by Hawkins is that

nowhere does our present curriculum offer children help in learning to understand language itself, the unique characteristic of the 'articulate mammal' (p 1).

Yet in the early 1980s it became apparent that a number of ventures, at different phases of educational provision, did in fact exist and had as their reason of existence an attempt to overcome in an overt manner the anxieties that Hawkins was able to identify. The courses at Archbishop Michael Ramsay School, Banbury School, Henry Box School, Hessle High School, and North Westminster School for instance are well-documented (Hawkins, 1984, pp 42-48). In the autumn of 1980, CILT convened a meeting of a number of practitioners who had been working at devising and teaching courses which had language as their focus. They discovered that they had much in common, although the ventures were different in style, setting and phase.

The net was more widely cast in 1981 when CILT organised a residential conference in Birmingham to which many who were known to have interests in the field were invited. The working groups at that conference moved tentatively, but significantly, towards defining an area of the curriculum which had hitherto existed somewhat apologetically, and the name Language

Language Awareness

Awareness emerged, with a certain common understanding if not total agreement about what it meant. The notion of a name which could be used to identify the work in progress, and the awareness that there were other, similar projects in operation, gave tremendous encouragement to the enthusiasts who had, in many cases, felt they were working in isolation.

It was clear that there was a need for a sharing of experience, and the National Congress for Languages in Education (NCLE) set up a Language Awareness Working Party in its next biennial cycle (1982-1984). NCLE had already considered in earlier conferences and papers the field of what was now known as Language Awareness. Part of the Working Party's remit was to establish a map of Language Awareness work in existence through research by means of a questionnaire administered to LEAs. It also undertook the task of acting as a support to practitioners in the field, by the dissemination of work in progress and other information by publishing a bibliography of available teaching materials¹, by the production of a newsletter², and by the selection of the small number of pilot schools, fuller accounts of whose ventures would appear in its final report (Donmall, 1985).

By the time the Working Party organised a conference in Leeds in 1983, there were reports from the pilot schools given to an audience which numbered about 100, drawn from teachers, advisers, academics, inspectors and publishers.

The cycle of NCLE work ended in 1984, but the work that had gone on in Language Awareness was perceived as having such importance that a continuation project was set up for the following cycle. This project looked particularly at producing an evaluation package and at the implications for teacher education. Work on the bibliography and newsletter continued, the latter being distributed to over 800 recipients.

In the first half of the decade then, there had been a large development in a field which was still growing and unformed. Encouraged by their colleagues' claims of success in schools, and by the existence of published teaching materials, teachers were ready to try to incorporate a Language Awareness element into their language curriculum.

Definition of Language Awareness

One of the problems encountered in the early history of Language Awareness was in identifying exactly what it was that the ventures had in common. In short, what was this area?

As a starting point, it is perhaps worth considering the Bullock term 'Language across the curriculum', in which it might be said that the focus is on the school's use of language. The way in which the work of the staff of the school is delivered in the form of the curriculum clearly has a linguistic aspect that is of fundamental importance. An understanding of the role of language and an agreement among the staff about a common policy in its use are important contributions to the effectiveness of the teachers in their work, and to the coherence with which the curriculum might appear to the pupils. The attention was clearly placed upon adults' use of language in contact with

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children, and numerous establishments produced language policy documents which reflect this focus.

It is not the same as Language Awareness. Whereas 'Language across the curriculum', in whatever form it appears, concentrates on the language used by professionals in their dealings with children, with the purpose of making the learners' experience of education more accessible, Language Awareness is concerned with an area of study for the learner. It involves the learner in studying some aspect of language itself, and not simply within the restrictions of the education system.

The NCLE Working Party defined Language Awareness as

a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life (Donmall, p 7).

It is clear from this definition that there is a vast area to be tapped here. What can be attempted within schools can only be a small part of an adequate treatment of such an ambitiously framed concept.

Stemming from the definition are two aspects which seem to underpin all of the Language Awareness ventures that have received publicity. Each has a cognitive aspect ('the conscious awareness') and an affective aspect ('a person's sensitivity'). The balance of the two aspects may be different when different modules or courses are examined, but the essence of the work is both to inform and to sensitise.

It follows then that the methodology adopted in Language Awareness work will reflect this duality, and the various objectives that teachers working in the field of Language Awareness have set themselves tend to emphasise one or other of the two aspects.

In general terms, Hawkins discusses the need to bridge the transition between the language curriculum of the primary school and that of the secondary school, to bridge the 'space between' the different aspects of language education, e.g. English, Modern Languages, Community Languages, Classical Languages, English as Second Language (see Perren, 1974) and to encourage the child to ask questions about language, which is so often taken for granted.

Some of the course objectives ('course' being a term of shorthand rather than implying that Language Awareness is necessarily restricted to the discrete timetabled slots or modules usually connected with the term) are expressed in these terms:

- to make explicit and conscious the pupils' intuitive knowledge of their mother tongue;
- to strengthen study skills for the learning of the mother tongue and foreign languages, and also of other curricular subjects;
- to bring about a perception and understanding of the nature and functions of language with a view to increasing the effectiveness of communication in the mother tongue or in foreign languages;
- to reveal to pupils the richness of linguistic variety represented in the class by speakers of different dialects or by speakers of a range of mother

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- languages and to show the relation of the variety to standard written and spoken English without arousing feelings of antagonism or inferiority;*
- *to foster better relations between all ethnic groups by arousing pupils' awareness of the origins and characteristics of their own language and dialect and their place in the wider map of languages and dialects used in the world beyond;*
 - *to help pupils overcome the discrepancy between the language of the home and neighbourhood and the school language of secondary education and the text book;*
 - *to introduce pupils, mainly at Sixth form level, to the concepts and techniques of linguistics and to consolidate what has been learned about language in an unsystematic way in the course of studying English and other languages (modern and classical);*
 - *to improve the reading skills of the verbally less able;*
 - *to impart an understanding of the value of language as part of human life (Donmall, 1985, pp 7-8).*

It will be noted that not all of these objectives would be claimed by every course in Language Awareness. Much depends on the location of the course in terms of the age of the pupils, and the situation of the school. What is, however, remarkable is that the variety of ventures in existence would all recognise these as being features either directly relevant to the content of their courses or closely related to it, regardless of where in the curriculum their courses took place. The existence of Language Awareness teaching in primary and secondary schools, by specialists in English, Modern and Community Languages, and others, bears witness to a strength in the movement's development. There is no single model of Language Awareness work that has to be followed in order for it to have value, and there is no single period in a learner's development to which Language Awareness has to be connected. This is claimed above to be a strength of the movement, for it has allowed the development of ventures to occur and for practitioners to work out in a variety of ways routes which are tailored to the needs of their own pupils, and the conditions within which they are working. The commonality has arisen through recognition of the aspects which are indeed common among ventures which have grown independently, and there has never been any suggestion of imposition of a model, nor of an imposed syllabus. The enthusiasm of the practitioners who are involved has, however, extended to a desire to pool resources and ideas, and it is in this way that the NCLE's work was an invaluable support in the early days. It might be hoped that moves towards a National Curriculum will not ignore the kind of development work carried out by teachers in such an area, but will encourage its further flowering.

The Language Awareness movement has attained a sufficiently high profile to have been recognised as valuable by others in the world of education. The Committee for Linguistics in Education (CLIE) welcomed the new approach and in a discussion document makes some suggestions about the minimum knowledge about Language that should be held by all school-leavers (CLIE, 1985). Whereas not all the contents of the document relate to Language

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Awareness, and one ought to beware of university academics appearing to dictate the content of school courses, the guidelines proposed provide a useful way of considering the work of courses.

Three principles are proposed. Each item of knowledge should be **teachable, valuable and reliable**.

By **teachable**, it is meant that it can be taught in the conditions obtaining in schools (e.g. appropriateness to the pupils, with appropriate resources). This excludes much of what counts traditionally as linguistics, but allows a wide variety of areas related with language to be included.

By **valuable**, CLIE mean that 'it is important to the quality of life'. An item for consideration may possibly improve language learning, or improve the pupil's understanding of the environment. Items which had no relation with the pupil would not comply with the principle of value. This disembodied analysis of structure or reference to an exotic language without a clear reference to something the pupil recognises would not qualify. This confirms the determination of practitioners in the field in reply to some more cynical observers that Language Awareness is not a return to 'purposeless parsing'.

By **reliable**, it is meant that the item is 'compatible with the findings of academic linguistics'. Here is an implied warning about the danger of 'folk linguistics', so that the popularly held misconceptions about language are not continued in the guise of Language Awareness courses. This is more important than the alternative danger of placing too much faith in the experts, who would be ready to admit that on many issues there is considerable disagreement. Nevertheless, there is a sufficient amount of agreement within the field of linguistics of which teachers in school can be confident (Hudson, 1981). The further implication behind this relates of course to the education of teachers, and the NCLE Language Awareness Continuation Project developed a series of recommendations which would be of use for in-service training for those involved in Language Awareness courses.

Language Awareness in practice

There are a number of patterns of Language Awareness provision in schools, and they tend to fall into groups related to the age of the pupils for whom the courses are intended.

Thus the most commonly found provision in secondary education (or in the later years of middle schools) is typified by an introductory course on foreign language study on arrival in the secondary school. This might be a discrete module, which is completed before any foreign language work is done, or it may run alongside the beginning study of a foreign language. It may involve teachers from a number of subject areas, although almost invariably with a strong base in English or Modern Languages, or it may be staffed entirely from within a language teaching area. It may exist as part of an extensive modular structure in which, for instance, pupils are introduced to a number of European and non-European languages, as well as following the Language Awareness course, in a scheme which may extend over a number of terms, or it may be quite easily absorbed in a more traditional timetabling pattern.

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The commonality is found in the content and style of the teaching rather than in the way the provision is made in terms of timing and its relationship with other courses. The multiplicity of patterns of provision for this age range, combined with the commonality of the themes and treatment, is ample evidence that there is no attempt to impose a standard form on an area which is felt by those involved to be valuable, but is still in its early stages of development.

A survey of some of the areas of content and their possible development would give an indication of the flavour of Language Awareness work at this level. Themes often included in a course for 11- or 12-year-old learners include the following areas.

Human beings' need to communicate

Most schemes attempt some agreement on what is meant by communication and an examination of the need of human beings to communicate. This may focus on a deficit model of human existence, in which the disadvantages of existence without communication are emphasised, or it may concentrate on the aspects of human communication which are different from those of other animal forms. Both approaches give rise to an examination of the complicated nature of communication systems, whether they involve the production and receiving of sound signals, signs or symbols.

Pupils may be introduced, for instance, to a critical awareness of the sophisticated control they already have over their own production of speech sounds, and the arbitrary nature of how their own native language uses only a small proportion of those which humans can produce. It is possible to examine the ways in which sounds are put together to make words and words are put together into meaningful utterances, as well as to consider in some detail the purposes to which we put language. Some courses spend some time considering the role of signs, symbols and code languages. In each case, the underlying direction is to awaken the child's interest and awareness in language and language learning, and not to regard the content as a body of fact to be absorbed.

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ACTIVITIES

1 Test your knowledge of signs by saying what these signs mean.



2 Now test your artistic talents! See if you can design signs or symbols for the following:

- Do not disturb!
- Beware of the dog!
- No talking!
- Please wipe your feet!
- Beware, teachers at large!
- Do not eat sweets here!

3 Make a list of all the signs and symbols you see on your way to school. You may be surprised how many there are.

Sign languages for deaf people

People who are deaf need a clear system of sign language. For those who are totally deaf, these signs are the main means of communication.

A sign language of the deaf is a complete language in itself. British Sign Language (BSL) is one of these sign languages. The hands, the eyes, the lips, the facial expression, the shoulders, the position of the head all combine to form a Sign Language. The language has no sound, but is in other ways as complicated as spoken languages.

The various signs have to be learned in the same way as a hearing person has to learn sounds. For deaf children, this is no more difficult than for a hearing child to learn any spoken language.

Deaf children usually learn BSL from other deaf children and deaf adults. Sometimes this process is quicker than that of hearing children who learn to speak. You will find out more about the process for hearing children in Chapter 3.



The workings of language

Hawkins identifies this area as possibly

the most controversial part of the 'awareness of language' programme because it raises the difficult problem of grammar, which has become a dirty word (p138).

It has certainly resulted in a suspicion that Language Awareness work is a kind of Trojan Horse, primed to wreak havoc among the communicative language classes by turning back the clock in order to talk about disembodied analytical grammar rules. The reality is quite different. The discussions of the structure of language that occur in Language Awareness schemes are based on the premise that grammar is an aspect of language that is fascinating to explore, and helpful to the language learner because it explains so much about what is being learnt. There is nothing in this claim which contradicts the principles governing communicative methodology.

Pupils at this age might for instance focus on different languages' systems of word order, or on how tense makes a major difference to meaning. Particularly important for native speakers of English beginning to learn a foreign language is an awareness of the notion of gender in language and its difference from sex. In most cases the raising of consciousness of the presence of pattern and how to recognise it is more likely to be successful in the native language of the learner, before he/she is asked to make such deductions in a new language.

Language varieties

If Language Awareness work is attempting to make pupils aware, it cannot ignore the presence of a vast range of varieties of language in daily use. Without travelling far, it is possible to come into contact in the UK with numerous varieties of spoken English, two other native languages (namely Welsh and Scots Gaelic) and a host of community languages. The presence of a wide range of dialects and of accents within a small geographical area provides a wealth of material for consideration in the courses. There is a constant public awareness too of localised speech varieties, and there is much easily obtainable recorded listening material which is suitable for use in schools.

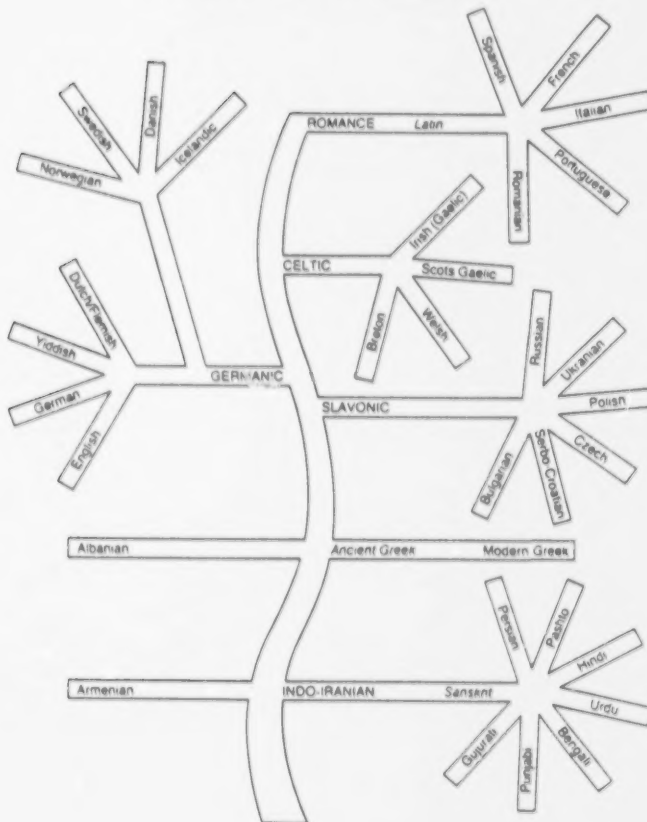
Examining one's own prejudices about the way others speak is a common element in Language Awareness work at this level. This may relate to other speakers of the pupils' native language, but it can also involve their reactions to speakers of other languages. It is also possible to look closely at the relationship that the new language has with the learner's own, if any, and to see how the varying fortunes of languages in terms of survival and dominance have been largely bound up with history. There is certainly every intention to show that the reason for the world dominance of English is almost totally an historical accident. It may be that an awareness of this is of crucial importance to native speakers of English about to embark on the learning of a foreign language. Another aspect of this element in the courses might be to consider the wide

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array of languages that are still in everyday use throughout the world and to realise that language learning does not stop at school.

Language variety is frequently bound up with language change. It is a perfectly reasonable goal for pupils of this age to consider the rapidity of change in their own language, and the reasons for that, and to learn something about the history of their own language, and its connection with their own cultural heritage in its widest sense.

From this exercise you can see how scholars have put together the Indo-European family tree, shown below.



Language learning

A natural slant of Language Awareness work at this level, particularly in respect of its chronological position at the beginning of foreign language study, has been a concentration on the process of language learning.

Many courses include an element in which pupils consider their own experience of acquiring their first language, and in which they are able to study the same process in other infants. Some of the stages which seem to occur naturally are accessible to observation and evaluation by children in the early years of secondary school. The conclusions which they are able to draw, suitably guided by their teacher, are relevant to the experience of foreign language learning which they are about to have. In addition to making a study of language acquisition, some courses spell out clearly the kinds of study skills which are going to be of value during the course of learning a language. The intention behind such a feature is to enable the pupils to make the best use of their language learning experience by equipping them with the most appropriate tools for it. In short, the teacher is being overt in attempting to make sense of the language learning task.

A small number of courses in Language Awareness focus on the late compulsory years and are related closely with education for parenthood. Here, the modular approach is dominant, and a course of a few weeks' duration is normal. The content reflects some of those aspects of language acquisition that will have been touched on in a course for younger pupils. Principally, the focus will be on the crucial role that parents have in their children's language development. This will include the importance of talk, a heightening of awareness of the baby's need to experiment with language in a sympathetic and encouraging environment, and the specific roles that parents can play in helping a child in acquiring and developing reading skills.

For students in the Sixth form, Language Awareness courses are now established to examination level. The 'AO' Principles of Language syllabus provided by the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board is well established on a small scale. The pioneer course at the Oratory School which leads to the examination is more similar to a traditional linguistics course than the ventures that are provided for younger pupils, but in its aims includes phrasing, which proves its place in the Language Awareness stable,

... by developing the student's awareness of what language is and how it functions, to make him more sensitive to his own and other people's use of it (Donmall, 1985, p146).

The list of content, too, shows great similarity with what has gone before, but at a depth and sophistication more suited to the age and attainment of the Sixth form students, viz:

1. Definition of human language and communication:
natural, iconic and conventional signs - voluntary and involuntary
communication beyond and alongside language - first language

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acquisition - animal communication - writing systems and other means of conveying language apart from speech.

2. Analysis of one particular linguistic system - English:
 - i. examination of the sounds of standard British English, leading to transcription practice in broad phonemic script - introduction to the speech mechanism and principal speech organs - intonation and stress patterns in English - comparison of English dialect sounds;
 - ii. the phoneme system and syllable structure in standard British English - syntactic elements of English (morphemic structure and syntactic categories) - syntactic structure (grammatical relations, transformations, embedded and compound sentences, inter-sentential reference).
3. Examination of change and variety of use in English:
 - i. arbitrariness of linguistic signs and its consequences - relationship of meaning and structure - contribution of context and presupposition to meaning - other elements contributing to meaning in language use;
 - ii. phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical and semantic changes in English - comparison of variations between British and American English - change in present-day British English - variety within a speech community, bilingualism/multi-lingualism, standard language and dialectal variation, social dialect, idiolect - variety of personal usage - styles of spoken English, registers of spoken and written English and their characteristics.

The area of Language Awareness has also entered the 'A' level syllabuses. At least two of the English syllabuses now on offer (JMB English Language [available from 1989] and ULSEB English Language Studies) contain descriptions of content that extend the range and depth covered in the 'AO' course, but which have elements which are recognisable in the courses provided at a lower age range. For instance, the JMB syllabus describes four interdependent areas of language study as being central: language and society, language acquisition, language varieties and language change.

In addition to written examinations, both syllabuses require candidates to submit a substantial project. The ULSEB scheme requires this to be concerned with Spoken Language, based on a study of recorded speech. The coursework requirement of the JMB includes some creative writing by the candidate, with a critical evaluation of it, but also permits a choice of topic area on which a personal investigation may be reported on in the form of a project.

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See my *tooths*? Mummy has two *foots*. My *feets* are wet.
We saw *cows* and *sheeps*. The *mens* are running.



This boy seems to have discovered the rule that says add 's' to make a word plural. So he does this with all words. He hasn't learned that some words don't obey this rule. Notice he also adds an 's' to words that are already plural, for example he says 'mens' and 'feets'. What is the plural of 'sheep'?

A very important part of learning a language is discovering the rules about how that language works. You don't simply memorize words and sentences, you discover rules for making words and sentences that you want to use, though you probably don't think of them as rules.

When babies first discover a language rule, they tend to over-use it. This is also true for older children or adults who are learning a foreign language. People don't like exceptions to rules so they may not notice exceptions. In the examples of the plurals above, you can see that the little boy has over-used the rule by adding an 's' to words which should not have an 's'. This kind of mistake is similar to the kind of mistake children make when they widen meanings for words they are learning, as you saw on page 11. Can you explain why?

G Now think about how you talk about things that happened in the past, for example: 'Today I am working. Yesterday I worked.' We call 'I worked' the *past tense*.

What do we usually add to a verb to make it past tense? Study some sentences said by a three-year-old girl (on page 23). How is she over-using the rule?

Methodological principles

Language Awareness is a child-centred discipline. It continues and, because its task is a wide one, perhaps extends the assertion that

pupils bring to the classroom a native-speaker's knowledge of and intuitions about language and its place in human society. In this sense, the task of the English teacher is not to impart a body of knowledge, but to work upon, develop, refine and clarify the knowledge and intuitions that his pupils already possess (Doughy, Pearce and Thornton, 1971, p 111).

In Language Awareness work, we are thinking not just of teachers of English, and there is perhaps more of a notion of knowledge to be imparted in certain circumstances, but the underlying principle holds good. It is essential to start from the pupil's position and experience.

Each classroom holds a vast amount of language expertise, waiting to be tapped. In many schools, this includes a wide variety of community languages. In teaching an area such as Language Awareness, it would appear that this rich resource of material can only be positively exploited. Here is the opportunity to demonstrate the worth and interest of the different language experience that each pupil brings, to value without prejudice this positive contribution to the learning of the whole class and of the teacher.

Starting with the pupils, and focusing on making their intuitive knowledge more explicit will help the teacher to be reminded of the awareness aspect of Language Awareness. The temptation to talk about language should be avoided. It is unlikely to interest many pupils in any case, but it is also the aspect of teaching for which Language Awareness would be most justifiably criticised. English and modern language classrooms, once a frequent home of a certain kind of explanation of prescriptive grammar and analysis are now valued for their use of language. To re-introduce talking about language to replace using it would be a sorry step backwards.

It has not been possible in a short paper to do more than give a brief survey of some of the aspects that Language Awareness work in its various guises has in common, and to indicate how, although it may consist of various disparate components, there is a strong feeling among the growing band of teachers involved of working together on something which is worthwhile and should be in the curriculum of all schoolchildren. For discussion of the issues such as teacher education in language, and more extended treatment of the subject matter which is suitable at various levels, the reader is recommended to refer to the work of Hawkins and of the NCLE working party.

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COMMUNITY LANGUAGES

Marion Molteno and Ralph Russell

Illustrations by Martin Casey

Changing the context

Language teachers are constantly being asked to respond to new trends. The fashions swing this way and that - communicative, structural, functional, situational; grammar is in or grammar is out. Despite all this searching after better methods and better syllabus design, many English speaking pupils still fail to learn other languages effectively. The basic problem stems from the context in which the children live and learn; however imaginative the teaching methods, learning a language remains an artificial exercise for pupils who never hear other languages used in everyday life.¹

This has been the case for decades; but there is no reason for it to remain so. A survey of Inner London schools shows that one in five pupils has a home language other than English.² Can we still believe that the other four-fifths live in a monolingual environment? Can children grow up in Bradford or Birmingham without hearing Urdu or Panjabi being used, in Leicester without hearing Gujarati, in Peterborough without hearing Italian? For city children, at least, the context has changed fundamentally.

But though many British cities have been multi-lingual for fifteen to twenty years, language teachers and policy makers have only just begun to respond to these changes. Until very recently no one in authority thought of teaching any of the languages of minority communities in school - neither to children from those communities, to give them the chance, which pupils of English speaking families have, to develop their mother tongue competence; nor to English speaking children, so that they can learn a language which they can hear used in daily life, and use while they are learning it.

Part of the reason for this lack of response is that the extent of community language use is often hidden. Policy makers may live in the leafier suburbs and be seriously out of touch with the life experience of children in inner city areas whose education they control. Teachers - and even pupils - may be genuinely unaware of how many children in their school speak other languages, because those children use English when with English speakers, and often do so even with friends of their own mother tongue to avoid attracting attention. Of course where there is a large intake of pupils from one language group - such as Bengali speakers in Tower Hamlets - everyone knows there is another language

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around, but the very preponderance of one language group evokes hostile responses. In such an atmosphere children who speak that language often take protective cover, and may even make a show of rejecting their mother tongue. They know it carries no status, because the school does not consider it worth teaching; they will not be considered clever for being able to use two languages (as they might be if they were good at French), but will at best be thought odd, and more probably be the butt of racist taunts.



[1]

For many years teachers - especially those who have a multi-cultural brief - have sought ways to counteract such attitudes and show that minority languages are valued. But it is only in recent years that serious consideration has been given to the question of whether to include community languages in the school curriculum. In a number of LEAs the initiative has been taken by teachers of English as a second language, whose experience has taught them (though remarkably late in the day in some cases) how important continued mother tongue development is for all learning, including the ability to learn English.

This view has been endorsed by research, notably the MOTET (Mother Tongue and English Teaching) project in Bradford where a group of young children who were taught for half the school day through their mother tongue (Panjabi) learnt English as effectively as the control group who were taught English only. In addition, those children who had been encouraged to continue using their mother tongue in school were, as might be expected, more confident

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in expressing themselves, and had achieved measurably more in other areas of intellectual development.³ Other projects - including several supported by the European Community - have highlighted the importance of community languages and done some of the groundwork to enable them to be effectively taught - devising syllabuses, preparing materials, etc.⁴



[2]

Finally, there has been pressure from minority communities themselves. Though the major language groups have for decades been running their own classes out of school time, with untrained teachers and few resources, they cannot hope to achieve what schools could, and have repeatedly pressed LEAs to take some responsibility for this vital aspect of their children's education.⁵ For years they have met with little success and parents have felt deep concern as young people lose the ability to speak in their own language and do not learn to read and write it - thus losing an essential part of their identity and being cut off both from meaningful contact with relatives and from the literate culture of the parents' countries of origin.

Recently, however, a combination of parental pressure and the multi-cultural lobby has finally begun to have an impact. A growing number of schools and LEAs have now at last recognised that they ought to have a role in relation to community languages. Provision is still extremely patchy. In some schools - for instance in Waltham Forest - a community language has been taught as a timetabled subject for eight years. In neighbouring LEAs nothing has changed. And even if a school officially offers a community language this is

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no guarantee that the pupils in that school have any real chance of learning it successfully. There have been - and still are - endless difficulties, many of them caused by the half-heartedness of the commitment on the part of the authorities: no clear policy as to where the new subject will fit in the options system; no budget to buy books; hasty appointments, without anyone on the interviewing panel who knows the language of those being interviewed or can judge their competence to teach it; no arrangements for teacher training. The small band of community language teachers appointed to schools feels beleaguered, having to fight for the facilities other teachers take for granted. They are expected to teach in the lunch break, after school; they are often peripatetic, rushing between several schools and not accepted as part of the staff of any.⁶ They often feel their difficulties stem from the racist attitudes of other staff members; and they are often right. Even setting aside racism, there are plenty of people (and teachers are no exception) who feel threatened by anything new, particularly if it is an area they know nothing about and therefore cannot hope to influence.



[3]

Outside the school the move to introduce community language teaching has sometimes attracted the attention of local politicians, who have suddenly realised that the Gujarati vote (for instance) might be useful in the next election; and that in turn has led to alarmist (and often wildly inaccurate) reporting in the media.

Initially, teachers of 'modern' languages were noticeably silent in relation to these developments. Only a small minority felt that the issue had anything to do with them. Even where community language teachers have been appointed

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to schools, established teachers of French, German, etc have made little attempt either to help their new colleagues (who usually came from a very different tradition of teaching) learn what they needed to know in order to operate effectively in a British secondary school, or to learn from them about the languages they were teaching and the particular problems their pupils faced.



[4]

Undoubtedly some British trained language teachers feel they have nothing to learn from community language teachers, whose methods appear to them to be old fashioned and inappropriate. Others may keep their distance out of a sense that they have nothing to contribute - teachers of French or German usually know as little about Cantonese or Turkish as any monolingual English speaker, and may be just as inhibited about showing their ignorance.⁷

Fortunately this situation is beginning to change. In some schools and LEAs, languages departments are now taking the lead in getting community language teaching started and in raising awareness in the schools of how many pupils have access to languages other than English. There are teachers of French and German who have begun to work alongside community language teachers to prepare the materials that are so urgently needed, sharing suggestions about methods, comparing teaching problems, discussing syllabuses. A few individual teachers have decided to equip themselves with at least a basic knowledge of one of the community languages - after all, as language teachers we can scarcely claim that this would be too difficult a task!⁸ There are other welcome indications of change: Language Advisers in some

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LEAs have redefined briefs to include community languages alongside the traditionally taught 'modern' languages; there are community languages workshops at the annual JCLA conference, lectures on community languages on a few PGCE courses; the very fact that a chapter on community languages has been considered necessary for this book is an indication of change.

But we should be cautious in our optimism. Much of what goes on is still exploratory talk, changing of names without yet having changed the substance. From the pupils' point of view things in most schools are much the same as they always were. Yet a fundamental rethinking has begun: more and more language teachers recognise that they cannot expect their work to thrive if they ignore the languages pupils bring in to the school. Naturally, the issue is brought home most forcefully to teachers in cities with large minority populations, but it is ultimately relevant to all language teachers. It is of comparable significance to the move away from the monopoly of classical Greek and Latin towards introducing the teaching of modern languages on the grounds (entirely applicable in this case too) that it makes sense for pupils to learn a language they can use.



[5]

This is not simply another fashion which teachers are being asked to respond to, but a change in educational provision brought about by a change in the society around us. It is significant also because it opens up exciting new possibilities. In one sense it does not matter which language a child learns at school, since no one can predict what language will be useful or necessary to that individual in adult life.⁹ Children who have had positive experience of language learning at

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school will apply that to whichever language subsequently becomes important to them. But what is crucial is that language learning should seem *real* to them; that they should see the connection between what they are doing in class and the possibility of actually speaking to people in that language.



[6]

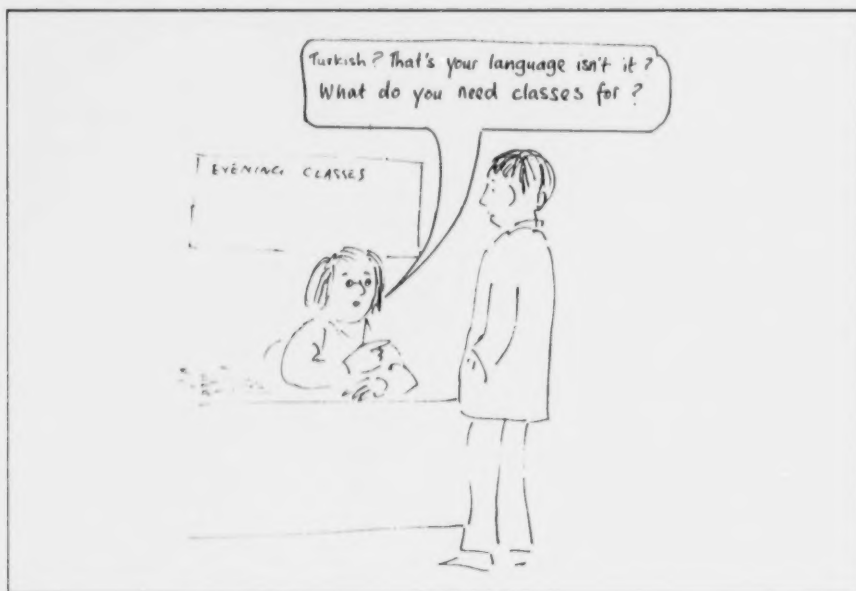
It is very unlikely that community languages will replace those traditionally taught in schools; French and other European languages will undoubtedly continue to hold their place as the languages of the wider community of which Britain is a part. But if at the same time we can make effective provision for teaching the major languages of our own multi-lingual community, we will have changed the context in which all language teaching takes place; and all pupils - those from monolingual English speaking homes and those from homes with other languages - will benefit.

Growing up bi-lingual in Britain today

When LEAs or schools consider introducing a community language into the curriculum, there are many questions which cause confusion.

Pupils from minority language groups are often referred to as 'bi-lingual'. What does this mean in practice? If they are really bi-lingual (that is, as fluent in their community language as in English), then the community language should presumably be taught as English is taught to pupils of English mother tongue - in which case are they the concern of a languages department which teaches 'foreign' languages? On the other hand if, as is commonly the case, the

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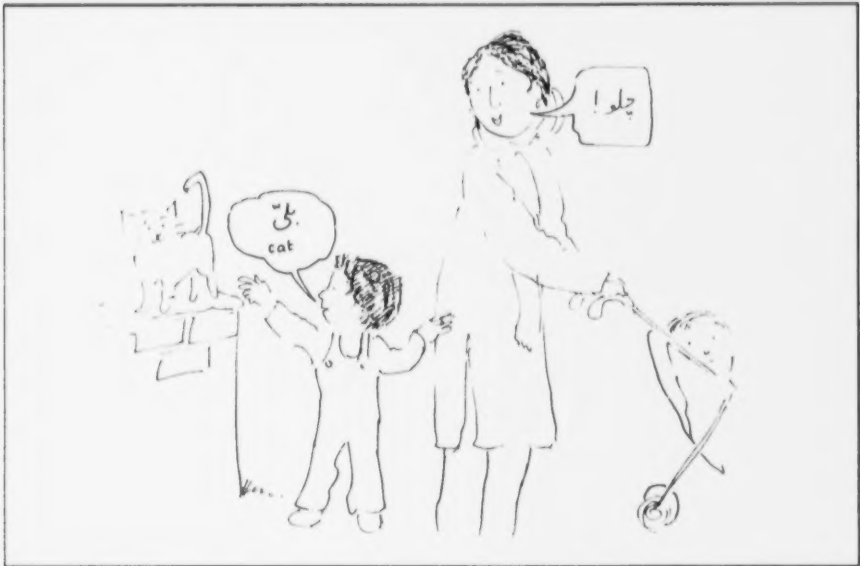


[7]

term is used about all pupils who have a home language other than English, even of those who cannot speak it well, then other questions arise. Perhaps pupils born in Britain feel ambivalent about the language of their parents; do they *want* to learn it? And which language should be offered? If parents whose home language is Sylheti insist that they want their children to be taught Bengali rather than Sylheti, should the school go along with this? What is the point in introducing yet another foreign language?

It may help to clarify a complex set of issues if we take as an example one pupil who has a home and community language other than English. Tariq Khan would be the first to say that he is no longer bi-lingual, though he once was. How did this come about? How is bi-lingualism *lost*?

Tariq is the unfortunate product of a school system which failed to recognise the importance of his community's languages in his overall educational development. He was born in Blackburn, Lancashire. His parents had come from Pakistan and spoke a dialect of Panjabi; there were many other Panjabi speakers in the part of town they lived in and for his first five years this was his primary language. But he heard a lot of English too - from his older brother and sister who were at school, from the television which was on most of the day, and from outings to the shops. By the time he started school he was regularly using many English words and phrases.



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Given positive support at school there is no reason why he should not have become confidently bi-lingual, having so many opportunities to hear and use both languages.

Regrettably, Tariq's potential bi-lingualism was not seen as an asset but as a problem. His teacher (herself monolingual) thought of him as in need of remedial help because his English was rudimentary. She believed that the best way to help him was to surround him with English for as many hours of the day as possible, and to discourage him from ever using his home language.

His parents soon picked up the message that they - as the dominant Panjabi influence in his life - were part of the problem, and did not feel comfortable going in to the school. Mr Khan, following the teacher's advice, developed the habit of speaking to his children in English - heavily accented and grammatically incorrect, sounding pompous as he impressed on them the importance of doing well at school. Naturally, this did nothing for Tariq's English and succeeded only in making him shy with his father. His mother knew very little English, and so continued to use Panjabi with him.

At school he was miserable for the first few months; his teacher did not understand most of what he said, and scolded him whenever he spoke to the other Panjabi speaking children in the class - 'You're here to learn **English**', she would say. By rejecting the willing (and free) services of these interpreters she inhibited Tariq's ability to learn from the natural situations surrounding him in class. What he did learn - and so did all the other children in the class - was that his own language was of no value.

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[9]

Having a child's natural preference for being accepted, Tariq rapidly learnt new English words; he began to use whatever English he knew when with his brother, sister and friends (who were of course subject to similar pressures). He soon realised that his mother was little use to him in acquiring this essential survival skill. By half way through Junior School he operated more easily in English than in Panjabi.

One might have thought the school would be delighted at his achievement; instead he was still considered a 'problem' because he could not read or write as well as the children who only knew English, and did not have as wide a vocabulary. He was taken out of class to get extra help from a teacher of ESL (English as a second language), and so missed much of what was happening in class. Having been told that he had a problem, he accepted this valuation himself; he felt tense whenever he knew he had to read or write, and did as little of either as he could get away with.

His teachers saw only his difficulties with English; they omitted to notice the longer term damage that had been done to his language development - that is, that his **mother-tongue** competence had not grown past a five-year-old level. He had been denied the chance (which the school gave to pupils of English mother tongue) to use the language with which he had been familiar from infancy gradually to expand the range of what he could express, and to learn to handle a more complex set of concepts. For some years now he had used Panjabi only for the simplest requests or comments; there was very little real talk with his mother. By the time he was ten she was telling her friends that he refused to



[10]

use Panjabi; in fact, it would have been more accurate to say that he **could** not. It had become a language he understood but could no longer speak.

Not being a woman of much formal education, she had assumed that the school would know best how to educate Tariq. Now she realised that something was going wrong; she felt sure that it was not good for him to lose this vital link with his family's culture. So she started sending him to Saturday school - where he was taught not the Panjabi dialect of the home, but Urdu, the national language of Pakistan. When his teacher in school heard this she thought Tariq's parents were burdening him unnecessarily - yet another language! In fact, Tariq had been surrounded by Urdu influences throughout his childhood. It was the language through which his parents - like all Pakistanis - had been educated. When the men in the community (who, having had more education, were usually more fluent speakers of Urdu) met together they often used Urdu rather than Panjabi, especially on more formal occasions or when there were people present whose regional dialect was different from their own. Since the two languages are closely related, Tariq understood a little of what they were saying and had absorbed their attitude that while Panjabi was simply what they spoke at home, Urdu was the language of their community. His parents used Urdu for anything they wrote - letters to relatives, for instance; or read - notices of community events, newspapers, etc. Tariq accepted it as natural that Urdu, not Panjabi, would enable him too to do these things as he got older.¹⁰

Learning Urdu could have seemed a natural next step. If he had been well taught he could easily have learnt to speak the language of his community, and

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to read it even if at a simple level, and he would have felt proud - the kind of pride that would have helped his own personal confidence, enabling him to learn anything more easily and to resist the pernicious influences that had led him to feel he and his language were a problem.¹¹

Unfortunately, his teacher in the Saturday school, though well meaning - as indeed most of his teachers at school had been - was similarly unable to recognise his learning needs. The teacher was untrained and so fell back on the methods that had been used to teach him when he was a child - reading and writing only; rote learning with no attention to meaning, or to whether what the children were given to read would interest them.



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Tariq started Urdu classes quite happily but within a few months was doing his best to get out of going. He could not see the point. He learnt nothing that he could use. The teacher made him feel foolish for not knowing things about his religion and culture that children in Pakistan would have known. He was embarrassed at the idea of his mates at school knowing what he did on Saturdays, or seeing the old-fashioned, childish books he was expected to learn from. The teacher complained to his mother that he was troublesome. Eventually she gave up trying to force him to go.¹²

Tariq arrived at secondary school, to be told that he would now learn French. No one told him why he should attempt yet another language, or why it

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should be French. Of course he did not expect anyone to explain. It was obvious - the school taught it, therefore he would have to learn it. But even before his first French lesson he had decided it would be a waste of time. He was hopeless at languages, he knew that from experience.

Even at this point it is possible that if he had encountered a language teacher who had looked on his bi-lingual background as a positive asset, some of the damage could have been undone. He could have been shown that because he understood Panjabi, even though he could not speak it, and had grown up hearing three languages used around him, learning any new language would probably be easier for him than for many of his friends, provided it was well taught. But he was not so fortunate.



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His French teachers were struggling with mixed ability teaching, graded objectives, GCSE, staff shortages, and budget cuts. They took Tariq at his own valuation, and like all his language teachers before him made no attempt to find out about his previous learning experience, or to think sensibly about his needs. No one was surprised when he did badly at French and dropped it as soon as he had the option.

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The way forward

What can we hope for in tomorrow's schools? How could we ensure for Tariq's successors, and their friends from English speaking families, the positive experience of language learning to which they are all entitled?

Many teachers express concern about problems like Tariq's but maintain that they cannot be avoided. We are told, for instance, that there are over 160 languages spoken in London. How can a local authority be expected to make provision for teaching all of them? In any case, there are few trained community language teachers - what good will it do to introduce these languages into schools if they are to be badly taught? All teachers feel pressed for resources - not only of money but of time in an already overcrowded curriculum; is it realistic to suggest fitting in a totally new curriculum area?

All of these arguments direct attention to real problems but none of them constitutes an excuse for doing nothing. No LEA can provide effective teaching in the mother tongues of 160 language groups, but this does not excuse it from the responsibility to try to do so for at least the major languages. In any given LEA - and even more, any given school - it is not difficult to establish which languages would cater for a significant number of pupils.



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If there are not enough trained teachers, we have to press harder for adequate training - for instance by urging that community language teaching be made a priority area under the GRIST (Grant-related In-service Training) funding arrangements.¹³ If there is intense competition for space in the timetable we may well find it difficult to persuade colleagues to look kindly on the introduction of community languages, but this in no way makes it less

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important that we should try to do so. It is every teacher's responsibility to think rigorously about her or his pupils' educational needs and to press for the kind of learning experience they are most likely to benefit from. As language specialists we cannot evade our particular responsibility to do this in the field of language learning.

Though there are no easy answers to the many practical problems, we can draw on examples of successful experimentation to help us find a way forward. In many cities there are now more nursery or infant schools where young children who arrive with a mother tongue other than English are met by bi-lingual nursery nurses or teaching assistants - or better still by fully qualified bi-lingual teachers - who can comfort and encourage them in their own language, and help them to continue to use it as a tool while they also learn English.

In a small but growing number of junior schools bi-lingual teachers are being encouraged to use their language skills in the classroom, so that all their pupils become used to having several languages used around them; and teachers who know only English are trying to find bi-lingual parents or other adults in the community who can come in to the class to provide what the teacher alone cannot.¹⁴ A few junior schools have moved beyond the concept of 'mother-tongue support' (originally seen primarily as a tool for the learning of English) to providing actual teaching of the community language - including teaching pupils to read and write it.



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Some LEAs have approached this task indirectly by offering support to community classes, providing free accommodation in school buildings after normal school hours or on Saturdays, funds to buy books, and training opportunities for teachers. But this still leaves a dual-tier system, with children

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learning their community language in an atmosphere divorced from normal school life. The best model is offered by schools which now teach the community language most commonly used in the school, linking it to the mainstream curriculum so that bi-lingual pupils are talking and writing about their experiences in their own language - in the same context, and at the same stage of educational development, in which they are learning to do so in English.

Teachers in secondary schools can draw on the experience of schools which have been offering a community language for some years now, noting both their achievements and their shortcomings. We have already mentioned the problems that arise from inadequate funding and the low status that still commonly attaches to community languages compared to other subjects in the timetable. There are other problems which arise from the 'back-log' effect; because the subject has not previously been offered in schools there are few commercially available materials - LEAs are only just beginning to realise that even the best teachers cannot be expected to produce good results unless they are given paid time in which to prepare the kind of materials which their colleagues who teach French or Spanish can expect simply to go out and buy. Community language teachers are also confronted with mixed-level teaching at its most challenging. Most teachers of French can expect their first year classes to consist overwhelmingly of complete beginners; in community language classes there can be no assumption of a common starting point. There will be some pupils who have had positive language support in the junior school years and have a reasonable - if underdeveloped - command of the spoken and perhaps even written language; with them are others who have had only negative experiences, cannot speak the language and do not know the script. And in several schools there is yet another group (which could and should be much larger) of native-English speakers with no previous experience of the language at all. Given the patchiness that results from a locally controlled education system, these mixed-level problems are likely to continue indefinitely. But if the special difficulties they pose were more clearly recognised, much could be done to help teachers cope with them as effectively as possible - smaller classes, training in appropriate group work techniques, etc.

Some problems are avoidable. For instance, the commonest timetabling arrangement has been to offer a community language as a second language option, but only from the fourth year. It is unrealistic to expect pupils to reach GCSE level in two years,¹⁵ especially given the additional difficulty of learning a new script, so teachers have been cornered into accepting into their classes only those pupils who belong to the community in question and have previous knowledge of the language. In some schools a community language is now being introduced in the third or second year. Ideally, it should be introduced in the first. Until schools begin regarding a community language as a subject to be offered to all pupils on an equal footing with any other in the curriculum, rather than as special provision for pupils from that language background, the kinds of problems Tariq faced will remain. Pupils from minority backgrounds will continue to accept the school's valuation that their language (and therefore an essential part of themselves) is not worth serious consideration. Nor is it only these pupils who are disadvantaged by such second class provision; once the

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school puts a new language on the curriculum it is impossible to conceive of a valid educational case for denying children of monolingual English background the chance to learn it.

Anyone who suggests that a community language be taught on an equal footing with other subjects is likely to be labelled as 'idealistic' - in the sense in which it is commonly used by those who resist change, i.e. meaning unrealistic. Of course we have to take full account of the practical difficulties. But there is nothing unrealistic about being clear where we are heading, and why.

Why should a community language be part of the curriculum? There are several answers: for pupils with mother tongues other than English, so that as many of them as possible can grow up using the language of their home and community with confidence, acquiring in it as time goes on an adult language competence, both in speaking and in writing. This is surely not too much to ask for any child.



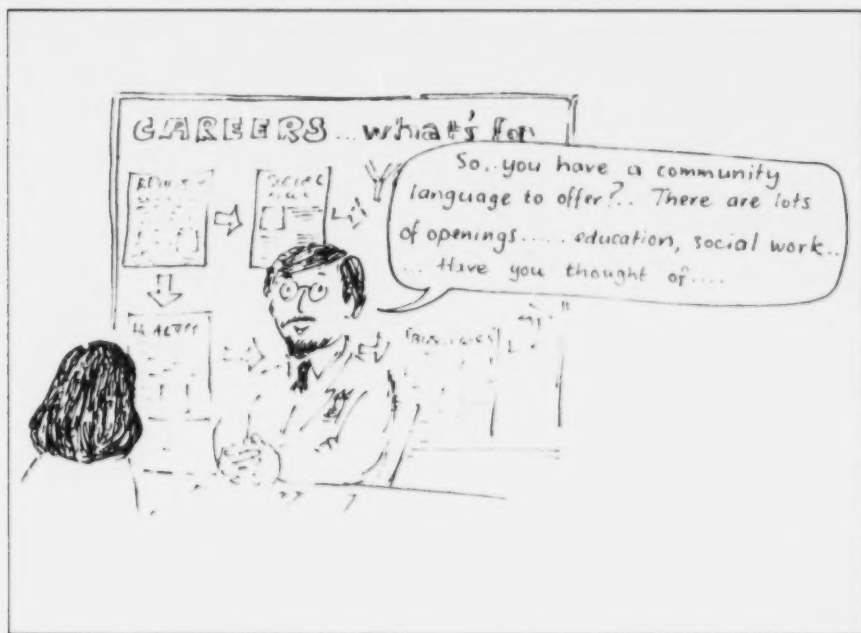
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For the majority of pupils of monolingual English background our aim is to provide a language learning experience richer - because more immediate - than they could get by learning a language they have fewer chances to use. Almost any argument for teaching foreign languages applies equally - and often with more force - to community languages. Alan Hornsey's perceptive article 'Why a modern language?' concludes that the ultimate justification for including any foreign language in the curriculum is *its unique contribution to the personal development of language-using adult citizens*. Even when we know that a majority of those we teach may never use any language other than English in adult life, it is still valuable for them to have

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an opportunity to discover how a different community expresses its experience, and a recognition, not of inferiority, but of how it is possible to convey facts, thoughts and ideas in a manner that is different but no less valid for being so. It is this acceptance of the validity of differentness which is essential in a multi-cultural society.¹⁶

And finally there is the minority of pupils of English speaking background who show an aptitude for languages, who continue to study them to GCSE level and beyond. There is nothing unrealistic about assuming that they could learn at school at least as much Bengali or Urdu or Panjabi as they already manage to for French, be able to use it in their daily lives and thereby enrich both their own experience and that of the people with whom the language brings them into contact.



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The community languages issue undoubtedly poses a challenge to today's language teachers - a challenge to rethink what we are doing, and to admit that if we are to do our job well we have much to learn. It might be easier to ignore this challenge and continue teaching the languages we know without reference to those spoken around us. But to do so would eventually undermine our own position, for it would take the education we offer further away from any real connection with our pupils' lives. If we meet the challenge - not with token

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gestures but with a serious intention to fulfil our pupils' needs - we are bound to bring a new sense of relevance to all language teaching.

Note on illustrations:

We have not given translations of the language texts used. As teachers in multi-lingual schools we will often be faced with examples of languages we do not understand, and will need to guess meaning from context, and ask for help from pupils or colleagues who know those languages. Try using the illustrations this way, starting by seeing how many of the scripts you can identify. (Answers at the end of the list of references.)

References and suggestions for further reading

1. See HAWKINS, E: *Modern languages in the curriculum*, Cambridge, 1981, for a description of what he calls 'gardening in a gale', pp 97-9.
2. LEA Research and Statistics Department, *Language census*, 1985. Similar surveys for other areas can be obtained from the relevant LEA. Where no reliable information on local language use exists, teachers can press for a survey to be conducted, using the model pioneered by the Linguistic Minorities Project. Details obtainable from the Information Office, Institute of Education, University of London.
3. The results of the MOTET project have never been published by the DES. A summary of its findings, by research officers Barré Fitzpatrick and Olaf Rees, was produced by the Department of Education, University of Bradford. Subsequent government reports - e.g. SWANN et al., *Education for all*, 1985 - have given support in general terms to the importance of mother tongue development, but have shied away from recommending the introduction of community languages as taught subjects. Since there is no basis in educational research to justify this reluctance, one must presume it arises from financial or political considerations.
4. For example:
Schools Council project on mother tongue teaching (1981-85, funded by the DES and European Community; head of project, David Houlton) which developed materials for Bengali and Greek at the Primary level, and involved several LEAs in adapting these for other languages.

Reading materials for minority groups project (Middlesex Polytechnic; project leader, Jennie Ingham) which produced a series of traditional tales from many of the minority groups, published in dual language texts (Bengali-English, Hindi-English, etc) (Luzacs publishers, 1985-7).

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Community languages in the secondary curriculum (1984-87, funded by the European Community; project leader John Broadbent) in which teachers of Urdu, Panjabi and Italian from three LEAs shared ideas about methods and syllabus design.

There have been various initiatives in teacher training, notably the RSA's in-service diploma course in teaching community languages.

5. For an example of pressure for better teaching provision from one language community see RUSSELL R, ed: *Urdu in Britain*, Urdu Markaz, London, 1982; and *Urdu teaching newsletter*, Nos. 1-17, published by the editor (1980-86). (*)
6. For a more detailed analysis of these problems, and suggested ways of tackling them, see RUSSELL R: 'Urdu teaching in British schools', *Development of South Asian language teaching*, London Borough of Newham, 1985, p 8-27.
7. For a discussion of ways in which languages teachers (of 'modern' languages, community languages, ESL) can work together across traditional divisions to prepare materials for community language teaching, see MOLTENO, M: *Teaching Britain's community languages*, CILT, 1986.
8. Evening classes in community languages are now offered in many LEAs, but methods used are not always appropriate to the needs of English speaking adult learners. Most widely successful have been intensive courses based on RUSSELL, R: *A new course in Urdu, and spoken Hindi*, SOAS (revised edition 1986). These have for some years been regularly offered in Oxford, Tower Hamlets (London) and Chorley (Lancashire), with *ad hoc* courses arranged from time to time in various other LEAs.
9. See the discussion on 'apprenticeship' language learning in HAWKINS, E: *op. cit.*, p 93
10. For discussion of similar questions in relation to other community languages see *Language and culture guides*, CILT (1985 onwards - separate booklets for each language.)
11. For writing by pupils from many different language groups, in which they express this pride, see MOLTENO, M *et al.*, ed: *Community Languages Magazine No. 1*, CLAC, 1987.
12. For a description of community language classes outside the school system see MOLTENO, M: 'The conditions under which community language teaching takes place', Supplement to *Urdu teaching newsletter*, No. 17, 1985.

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13. For discussion of LEA policy issues see HOULTON, D and R WILLEY: *Supporting children's bi-lingualism: some policy issues for primary schools and local education authorities*, Longman for Schools Council, 1983.
 15. For discussion of ways in which classroom teachers can support pupils' bi-lingualism, see HOULTON, D: *All our languages - a handbook for the multilingual classroom*, Edward Arnold, 1985.
 16. Examples of syllabuses and examination papers for community languages at GCSE level can be obtained from Northern, Midlands and London and East Anglia Boards. At present they have to conform to the same specifications as those for French etc, without any modifications to take account of the needs of a community as compared to a foreign language. For a discussion of the criteria of assessment appropriate for community languages see BROADBENT, J, M HASHMI, B SHARMA, and M WRIGHT: *Assessment in a multicultural society: community languages at 16+*, Schools Council and Longman, 1983. Though written before the advent of GCSE, the general principles are still relevant.
 17. HORNSEY, A. 'Why a modern language?', in: *No, Minister*, Bedford Way Paper No. 4, Institute of Education, London, 1981, p 39 and 36.
- (*) Booklets or articles published by the authors can be ordered from them c/o CILT.

The languages used in the illustrations are:

Bengali [1, 15]

French [12]

Greek [6]

Gujarati [2]

Panjabi in Gurmuki script (used by Sikh Panjabi speakers) [13]

Panjabi in Urdu script (Muslim Panjabi speakers) [8, 10]*

Vietnamese [14]

Urdu [4, 8, 11]*

*[8] is both Panjabi and Urdu

Our thanks to Kasim Dalvi, senior teacher responsible for community language teaching in the London Borough of Waltham Forest, and Alan Hornsey, Head of Modern Languages in the Institute of Education, University of London, for commenting on a draft of this contribution, and to Tasleem Aman Ullah, Swapna Das, Shobhna Gandhi, Tejinder Rekhi, Katie Papachristou, Bi Lian Tang and Giao Vo for writing or checking language texts in illustrations.

SECTION IV

THE CHANGING SCENE BEYOND 16

NEW DEVELOPMENTS AT 'A' LEVEL

Alan Moys

The 1980s have been years of rapid and fundamental change (not to say turmoil) for our education system, with government initiatives occurring at a sometimes bewildering rate. Amidst the array of changes, GCSE is perhaps the most prominent in terms of the effects felt by schools. The development of the new examination at 16+ has provided the opportunity (eagerly seized upon by many teachers) to achieve block-busting changes to the relatively traditional foreign language examinations which we have had until now. Whatever the faults of the new examinations, whatever the shortcomings in training and resource terms which may have characterised their introduction, they represent a major step forward. Teaching and learning a foreign language in school will now be for many a very different process from what it was. In particular, the emphasis on practical language skills for everyday communication is likely to continue to dominate our classrooms for the foreseeable future.

Among the many questions raised by teachers of foreign languages in preparing themselves and their classes for the new GCSE, one in particular causes continuing anxiety to many. What about 'A' level? Will not the new generation of GCSE pupils be inadequately prepared for the demands of the 'A' level examination? While for some teachers this question has been a coded last-ditch protest against GCSE and all its works, for most it reflects a genuine concern at the fact that post-16 curricula are not the subject of changes in parallel with GCSE, and that there is a consequent risk of mismatch between the competences specified for GCSE and those required for 'A' level. The arrival of GCSE simply throws into greater relief the urgent need felt for many years for a full-scale redesign of the curriculum beyond 16, particularly for the 16-19 age group.

In the case of languages, the problem is compounded by the low continuation rate beyond 16: typically, only 5-6% of the age group are still studying a foreign language in the years post-16. Of course, to blame such a state of affairs on the form and content of traditional 'A' level examination syllabuses would be unfair and simplistic: the low numbers are principally a reflection of the low status we as a society have accorded language learning, and our failure as a nation to recognise the importance of languages to our economic survival. It is perhaps **because** of this public attitude that we have been content until recently to see advanced language learning as an academic exercise in the classical tradition. Now, however, the picture in higher education looks very different, by far the most popular degree courses in the languages field being

New developments at 'A' level

those which offer applied language programmes, or courses in which languages are combined with other disciplines.

These factors may help to explain why, in spite of the absence of any general reform of the 16-19 curriculum, we are nonetheless witnessing a variety of new initiatives in syllabus development for languages at 'A' level, which together provide teachers with much greater choice than has been available until recently. Most existing foreign language teachers are preparing candidates for examinations which have varied little since they themselves were candidates, with a basic pattern of prose and unseen translation, essay, dictation, together with a dominant component of set books frequently studied (and invariably examined) in English. The oral examination generally counted for only 10-15% of the marks, while listening comprehension only slowly secured a place in most (but not all) examinations, and even then involved the reading aloud of texts which were never intended for listening.

Dissatisfaction with foreign language examinations at 'A' level has been expressed for many years, often from the most distinguished quarters. As long ago as 1970 the Schools Council's authoritative (but largely ignored) Working Paper 28, *New patterns in sixth form modern language studies* (Evans/Methuen, 1970), mapped out the territory and established the guiding principles which our examinations would eventually need to follow. Until the 1980s, however, the only positive response came from one of Britain's smallest GCE boards, the Southern Universities' Joint Board (SUJB), whose alternative 'A' level syllabus for French, though widely praised, existed alone in the wilderness for several years. In 1981, the original impetus of Working Paper 28 was renewed with the publication of *French 16-19: a new perspective* (Hodder & Stoughton, 1981), which, with Working Paper 28, is essential reading for anyone wishing to understand the underlying philosophy of current 'A' level developments. Since both these books include substantial practical help by way of worked examples, they are doubly interesting to the teacher or would-be teacher.

We have had to wait a long time, but by the end of the decade the 1980s are likely to have encompassed a whole range of new initiatives in the 'A' level examinations available to us. Starting with the London Board's Syllabus B in French (1982), we have seen also new examinations from Oxford (French 1984, German 1986), the Welsh Board (1985-86), the Joint Matriculation Board (available in 1988 for French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian) and AEB (also available from 1988, covering French, German, Italian, Spanish, but not Russian). Indeed, in some cases the Boards already listed here have already announced additional development plans. In addition, by 1990 there will be new examinations from the Cambridge and the Oxford and Cambridge boards. Details of all new 'A' level languages examinations are obtainable from CILT in *Information 10: Patterns of change in GCE 'A' level languages examinations*, which is here reproduced as Appendix I.

A remarkable - and encouraging - feature of the new syllabuses is the variety of approaches they adopt to the task of redesigning the examination. The result is that teachers have a genuine choice, albeit somewhat more limited for teachers of German, Italian, Spanish and Russian. (Outside this select group, there is nothing new on offer, in spite of the importance of many other

New developments at 'A' level

European and Asian languages in our increasingly multi-cultural society.) It is important that, in exercising choice, teachers (or better still, departments) should draw up a check-list of their requirements from the prospective examination, particularly in terms of the relative importance of different features. We all choose our cars or our holidays according to such criteria: we should be at least as critical in choosing our examinations.

Here are some of the questions which teachers may wish to consider:

1) How much is new?

Closer scrutiny of the syllabuses will reveal that in some cases boards have retained some well established test-types alongside newer ones, while in others the examination has been the subject of a more radical redesign.

2) To what extent does the examination have an explicit rationale?

For far too long, teachers have had to guess at, or glean from examiners' reports, the working principles and intentions of those who design and assess our examinations. Now boards are being increasingly helpful in sharing their thinking with the user. JMB provide a particularly comprehensive rationale for their new syllabus.

3) Does the range of tests used in the examination reflect the skills, capacities and understandings which you would wish to develop?

As an illustration, all the boards seek, by their choice of examination components, to encourage the use of the foreign language. How successful are they? How much work in English arises for the examination? To what extent are candidates encouraged to develop the ability to 'process' authentic foreign language, spoken or written? Are skills such as summary and extensive reading encouraged?

4) Do the mark weightings suggest an appropriate balance between elements?

While all the boards in question award, for example, around 20% for the oral, in other areas the variations in allocation of marks to different areas warrant particular attention by prospective users.

5) What will be the effects of the examination on your classroom practice as a teacher, and on the activities engaged upon by students?

For example, what will be the approach to a reading programme? Will there be 'set texts'? Will they be studied in English? Is the reading programme decided by the teacher and/or learner? How much opportunity will there be - if you require it - for students to engage in sustained individual work in the form of course work?

New developments at 'A' level

- 6) *What supporting information is available from the board which could help you prepare your candidates most effectively?*

A list of the sorts of supporting information from each board is included in *CILT Information 10* (Appendix I). You should in particular try to compare the helpfulness of examiners' reports. Are they specific, detailed, and clearly aimed at helping teachers and candidates better to understand the examiners' intentions? How often do they adopt the tone of a judge in court deploring the state of modern society? How often are words like 'gross error' and 'inexcusable carelessness' to be found?

The choice of new 'A' levels in languages is rich but bewildering. By considering questions such as those listed above you are more likely to choose the examination which suits both your requirements and those of your students.

FUTURE REFORMS AT SIXTH FORM LEVEL

Antony Peck

My brief in this contribution is to set out a programme for reforms in language teaching at Sixth form level. They are personal proposals, though I have consulted a number of language teachers concerned with the 16-19 age group.

Some reforms are brought about because a changing situation makes them inevitable; others are implemented in order to put right an injustice; some result from new insights into our professional life, pointing the way ahead; while others seek to check wayward tendencies and chart a true course. I want to propose one of each type of reform.

Our first priority must be the survival of language teaching to the highest standards in the age range 16-19. We all know, however, that the current trend of public opinion exerts a powerful attraction in favour of the scientific side of the school curriculum, in the belief that employment opportunities are best, following an education in that area. Largely as a result of this, the numbers taking 'A' level in foreign languages have been declining for several years.

Understandably, perhaps, in view of public debate, some language teachers themselves have come to believe that their students' job opportunities are less strong than those of colleagues on the science side, forgetting temporarily the particular intellectual and social qualities which language learning fosters, and how necessary they are to society. For my part, I remain steadfastly optimistic about the life chances of modern linguists, and this is continually reinforced by the first posts obtained by ex-students of the school where I teach part-time, and other young people, and by analyses of job advertisements which we make from time to time at the York Language Teaching Centre. Intensive, long-term practice in understanding a bewildering variety of messages, in many different registers, intended for members of another culture, all possessing formal properties far removed from our native means of communication develop in modern linguists, dealing with everything from the daily press to high literature, an ability to receive and comprehend human communication unrivalled in society. The rigorous training in sending verbal and written messages, intended for many different people, in a range of situations, for a variety of purposes, over a wide formality scale, develops an ability to organise one's thoughts, classify one's mode of expression, and efficiently encode meanings, so that they will be comprehensible to members of another culture. These skills are transferable and marketable. The ability to impose understanding of one's meaning on another has a value not lost on British exporting industries.

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I recently spoke to directors of two of our leading manufacturing companies and asked them what makes an arts graduate employable. Among the qualities they listed were: to have good interpersonal, social skills; to be able to cope with, and bring about change; to have people skills. Who can doubt that the Sixth form linguist, learning to meet and get on with foreigners, and to adapt in all ways to another culture, is preparing realistically for employment?

What steps should we take to preserve the contribution we make to society? I believe that our basic, philosophical position should be that state education has a duty to meet the needs of all students in full-time education. For Sixth form language teachers this means offering courses catering for the abilities, level of previous attainment, likely future proficiency, and needs of those whose access to a second language has been restricted by the core curriculum, and also those who are capable of progressing beyond the proficiency level of GCSE, but without attaining the high standards currently required in examinations taken at 18. 'A' level is highly academic, both in its traditional and in its alternative forms. 'AS' level proposals are, by definition, as rigorous as the existing 'A' level, even though they try to require half the time of an 'A' level course, and cover 'half the amount of ground covered by the corresponding 'A' level syllabus'. There is, therefore, and will increasingly be, a need for language courses to an intermediate level, taking students beyond the proficiency levels of GCSE, but not leading to the academic goals of 'A' or 'AS' level.

Such courses will not be academic, but neither will they be vocational. Not only is it impossible to predict the vocation of 16-year olds, except in rare instances; they will be very diverse, whatever they turn out to be. Strictly vocational courses would bypass the needs of the majority, and should consequently be the province of colleges providing a vocational training. Schools, being concerned with education, could, however, offer worthwhile practical courses in foreign languages having a high surrender value.

Intermediate courses would be skill-based, developing those linguistic skills predictably needed by young men and women who may want to work, study or travel abroad. They would be founded on an analysis of how language is used between natives and foreigners in the most likely social, work and learning situations. An emerging objective, defined in this way, would be refined by considering the social and psychological roles young Britons would need to exercise in contact with foreigners, both here and abroad. Consider what some skill objectives might be, set out in this way. The skill of taking part in one-to-one informal conversations on a range of everyday social topics with friends and good acquaintances might be one. Taking part in one-to-one formal conversations on a range of specialised topics with people from whom services are required, help is needed, or to whom some form of duty or service is owed, would be another, and would consequently require mastery of a different register and a number of different vocabulary areas. It could be anticipated that any intermediate level student, aware of some future practical need for linguistic skills, would one day find himself or herself in a situation where there was a need to take part in an informal, social discussion in which all other participants were native speakers. This would create a need to master such discussion skills as the ability to put forward and sustain a point of view,

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express disagreement without giving offence, explain cultural differences, give reasons for an opinion or proposal, make an objection to a sweeping or prejudiced statement, express doubt about the validity of what someone has said, and so on. I do not want to describe a complete syllabus here. It is enough to try and make the point that an analysis of language skills can produce a practical language-learning objective, covering all the major skill complexes, capable of meeting the needs and abilities of a substantial number of our Sixth formers. A defined content syllabus, made in this way, should of course be examined and certificated. To be valid, the examination should be criterion-referenced.

There is, in my opinion, one further vital consideration to be borne in mind in advocating such a reform. Most language teachers already have full timetables. While many would welcome increased recruitment for languages in the Sixth form, teachers do not have a lot of free periods in which to teach new categories of students. It would therefore be essential in designing intermediate level syllabuses to provide for a sufficient degree of 'commonality', so that, for as many lessons as possible, intermediate level students could be taught alongside students pursuing 'A' or 'AS' level. Even then, the goodwill of the Head, not to mention the Deputy in charge of timetabling, is essential; but I believe that such experience as exists (LASER) shows that courses like this can be put on, and that they can play a major part in ensuring a continuing flow of students wishing to study languages in the Sixth form.

'A' level marking

The second and third weeks of August are traumatic for many people, but nothing causes more anguish to students, parents, and teachers than obtaining 'A' level grades lower than were confidently expected, predicted and worked for. Sometimes, whole groups perform worse than apparently equally gifted students the year before. A Sixth former who has been made a university conditional offer of, say, BBB, and who is confidently expected by the school to achieve this standard, may find life chances removed if a DDD result is obtained and no university place is consequently available. Anyone who thinks that teachers are not already assessed should be in a mid-vacation staff room when this happens.

In 1986, the marks awarded by one of our examining boards for an 'A' level foreign language examination were out of a total of 200. The lowest mark for a B grade was 121, and the highest for a D was 112. The width of the C band was thus seven marks out of 200, or 3½%.

It would require more credulity than any teacher I know possesses to accept that 'A' level marking is sufficiently precise and objective for results based on such a scheme to be valid. The 'A' level examination is in fact a competition, the marking norm-referenced, and the purpose is to place candidates in rank order so as to facilitate university selection. Boards' protestations that they do not follow statistical procedures, and that they do look very carefully at borderline cases, ring very hollow in mid August.

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Proposals from the SEC in 1986 to allot an equal spread of marks to grades C, D and E do little other than tinker with a system which is in urgent need of major reform.

Schools would welcome, I believe, a more objective and valid method of distinguishing between 'A' level candidates than we have at present. Hard-pressed admissions tutors, on the other hand, may be less than enthusiastic about any widening of the C band, since more students will come within it, thus risking that they exceed their quotas with financial penalties following as a result.

Bases for reform already exist. Much work has been done by and for the SEC in defining Grade Criteria for the GCSE examination. There is little *a priori* reason why a similar approach should not be adopted for 'A' level. This examination is itself in a state of flux, and so it may be instructive to consider the feasibility of describing grade criteria for one or more of the more radical 'A' level proposals. Both the JMB and the AEB have reformed 'A' level examinations available from 1988. The JMB tests candidates' ability to write both in the foreign language and in the native tongue on prescribed texts; translate into English and into the foreign language, as well as composing in a range of registers, on the basis of authentic resource-passages; there is a test of listening comprehension consisting of open questions, summarising, transcription and multiple-choice items; and of course a substantial oral. The AEB tests listening comprehension of authentic material; translation into English and open questions on authentic passages; there is a use of language test where candidates answer questions and summarise in the foreign language, the source passage being in English, and there is an essay; candidates write in the foreign language on broad, contemporary themes drawn from civilisation, literature and culture; and there is a substantial oral. (CILT Information 10)

Given this range of integrated, topic-based language activity, are there means to hand for describing candidates' tasks with sufficient accuracy for a substantial measure of criterion-referencing to be introduced into 'A' level marking?

In describing skill domains, it is no longer convenient to assume that listening, reading, speaking and writing are independent areas of linguistic activity, to be taught and tested in watertight compartments. Acceptance that nearly all communication uses mixtures of skills makes it comparatively easy to be precise about which skills could be taught. Consider some sample task-definitions, all arising in this case from initial listening activity, which could therefore be categorised as listening comprehension. Responses to what has been heard fall into other skill areas, and may fall into several. While, therefore, a student's performance standard cannot be wholly attributed to one or other part of the task, the definition itself is sufficiently unambiguous to be used as a criterion of linguistic ability:

- a) express agreement or disagreement in writing with a point of view heard on the radio, e.g. the equivalent of writing a letter to the BBC's *Any Answers* programme;

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- b) summarise in writing the main points of a series of instructions received aurally, e.g. procedures for obtaining permission to eat in a university restaurant abroad as a *bona fide* student;
- c) pass on advice to a third party, obtained during the course of a discussion, e.g. advice about what to do and where to go on holiday;
- d) edit a faulty report, e.g. scrutinise and correct the minutes of a meeting one has attended, i.e. listened to;
- e) make notes during an interview, so as to have an accurate record, e.g. note down what a friend says to a policeman at the scene of an accident;
- f) express in writing an opinion about a work of literature, e.g. write a letter to a friend, recommending that he or she should listen to the repeat of a radio dramatisation or TV play;
- g) take notes of a communication given to you verbally, e.g. write down a message passed over the phone;
- h) make a written recommendation for a course of action on the basis of what one has heard, e.g. propose someone for a job after hearing an interview;
- i) put one's point of view in writing on a matter of current concern being discussed on the air, e.g. the equivalent of writing a letter to the BBC's *Today* programme.

The above examples, which could be multiplied to include all the main skills in different combinations, describe realistic uses of language, some of which fall easily into a teenager's experience of the world, while others look forward to possible later practical uses. As such, they might well include, for instance, the traditional translation skills, themselves thoroughly authentic under appropriate circumstances.

Precision in task-setting can be achieved also by using other syllabus definition procedures, with which GCSE has made us familiar already.

The first of these is to define the topics and therefore, to some extent, the vocabulary with which students should be familiar. Lists of suitable topics for 16- to 19-year olds studying a foreign language already exist. See, for instance, the COSSEC proposals for 'AS' level (COSSEC 1987), and the list advocated in *Guidelines for written French at 'A' level* from SCUE and CNAAL (SCUE). The objective can be further refined by stating the language functions students at this level should be able to use. A major language-learning objective, based largely on this concept, was first put forward in the *Threshold Level* (van Ek, 1975) (*Un Niveau Seuil, Kontaktschwelle*) and has been substantially drawn on for constructing GCSE syllabuses. Statements of language functions to be mastered, e.g. express strong conviction, belief, qualified acceptance, doubt, or rejection of, say, a claim, give indications of grammatical areas for students between 16 and 19 to learn to use. This precision about language use could be further enhanced by statements of 'structures not normally expected for productive purposes at 'A' level' (see the SCUE/CNAAL document referred to above). The dual use of functions to frame syllabus guidelines, together with generally negotiated *tolerances grammaticales*, helps to steer a course between the dangers of defining a minimum corpus, within which any weakness would

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bring failure, or a maximum corpus, beyond which no student need learn anything.

The one remaining criterion needed to make 'A' level grade descriptions meaningful is also the hardest to construct. Levels of proficiency have been extensively used to help examiners mark the GCSE examination, and distinguish between the levels of ability of each candidate. They are readily available in GCSE documentation. As with all proficiency rating scales, each criterion risks being interpreted differently by each marker, unless elaborate standardisation procedures are used. Once these are applied, however, on the basis of a sufficient number of marked example scripts, very precise definitions of proficiency can be obtained. For a selection of sample, marked scripts at 'A' level, categorised into outstanding, very good, good, competent, adequate, and barely adequate, the reader is once again referred to the SCUE/CNAA document.

My argument is, therefore, that no acceptable reason exists for the retention of norm-referencing in 'A' level assessment, and certainly not for the invidious C band, since adequate descriptive means exist for meaningful criteria to be applied to students' linguistic performance; criteria which will help universities and employers alike to know what their applicants can actually do with the foreign language.

The need for research

We have never lacked people prepared to tell others how to teach a foreign language. Some of the greatest names in our profession have left behind instructions, based on their own successful teaching, still full of inspiration for teachers today. *The practical study of languages: a guide for teachers and learners*, Sweet, 1899; *How to teach a foreign language*, by Jespersen, 1904; and *The scientific study and teaching of languages*, 1917, as well as *The principles of language study*, 1922, by Palmer, are prime examples of this literature.

Large-scale comparisons, designed to find out which of two 'methods' works best, have been less successful. One of the first and best known of these was the study conducted by a professor of language and a professor of psychology at the University of Colorado, where students were taught German by two distinct methods: the audio-lingual method and the traditional method (Scherer and Wertheimer, 1964). The study was inconclusive, one group being superior to the other in some skills, and inferior in others. So it has been with other global method comparisons since then. Chastain and Woerdehoff's study in 1968; the GUME Project in Sweden described by Levin, 1972; all failed to find the panacea.

One study was especially fatal for British language teachers. This was the ten-year evaluation of the experimental introduction of French into the primary school curriculum, conducted by the National Foundation for Educational Research. The final, and controversial report of this study concluded with the now notorious words:

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Now that the results of the evaluation are finally available, however, it is hard to resist the conclusion that the weight of the evidence has combined with the balance of opinion to tip the scales against the possible expansion of the teaching of French in primary schools (Burstall, 1974).

This was the *coup de grâce*. Considering that the report was unfavourable to the teaching of French in the primary school, it is perhaps surprising that a principal contributory factor, ineffective teaching methods, received so little objective description in the report. No taxonomy of discrete teaching methods was constructed, nor do there seem to have been any standardised observation procedures. The report contains trenchant criticisms of class repetition with the tape-recorder and of reading aloud, so that it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that only part of the evidence was collected or presented. Since then, reports of language teaching, produced by HMI after visiting a large number of comprehensive schools, have been severely critical, and in their 1977 document they were only able to find very few examples of good practice (HMI, 1977). It is small wonder then that disenchantment with large-scale studies set in during the 70s. Commenting on the state of language teaching at the Third International Congress of the International Association for Applied Linguistics, Allwright said:

I would like to claim, therefore, that the problem of description is a fundamental problem in research on language teaching. It has been easiest to criticise the global research, but it should be clear that all research on methodological comparisons must remain strictly speaking uninterpretable if it is accompanied by a failure at the descriptive level, whether this be a failure in teacher preparation or in subsequent classroom observation, or both. (Allwright, 1972)

Ten years later, Allwright's view was echoed by David Stern, who points again to our need to advance and deepen our understanding of classroom language teaching:

Most of the studies have operated with the teaching method as the main category of comparison. Neither from a theoretical nor a practical point of view are such contrasting pairs of concepts as audio-lingual vs grammar-translation, language laboratory vs non-laboratory, immersion vs non-immersion, as clearly distinct from each other as the labels suggest. In experimental research it is not sufficient to accept these labels at their face value. For an investigation on teaching methods to be convincing, it is crucial that the theoretical distinctions between the methods are clearly defined, and can be empirically backed by classroom observation or by some other technique of documenting the instructional variables. (Stern, 1983)

I want to propose that a totally new type of research should characterise our attempts to cope with the demands of changing 'A' level examinations, the introduction of 'AS' level, and the different skills developed lower down the

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school by the GCSE. It should be scientific in the sense of being pragmatic; it should in this respect be similar to medical research. It should be small-scale and classroom-based. It should be within the capability of each individual teacher or modern languages department to conduct, and it should be independent of any individual teacher's personal teaching style, whether this be best described as formal or informal. Similarly, it should be independent of the ability or background of students, the nature of the school timetable or the support given to modern language teaching in the school, and also of the textbook or teaching materials in use. In other words, the type of research I wish to recommend for wide-scale acceptance in our schools should be focused unerringly on how the individual teacher teaches a foreign language within the confines of his or her own classroom. In being pragmatic, it should carry with it the possibility of varying and contrasting elements of teaching method to the mutual benefit of teacher and students, so that ways of improving linguistic proficiency can be sought effectively.

Let me try to be as concrete as possible. How can classroom research be pragmatic, like medical science? If you have a pain in the tum caused by some hitherto unknown factor, the doctor will give you some red pills. If these do not work, he or she will give you some blue pills, and so on. This is of course a caricature, but in the crudest terms, it is how medical science works. I am suggesting that large numbers of teachers should conduct their own research just like this. Consider one, comparatively new, aspect of our language teaching in the Sixth form. The increasing importance of listening comprehension compels us to work more and more with sound recordings; the move towards authenticity means that many recordings will need to be genuine, i.e. of native speakers conversing spontaneously. New objectives require new methods. Let us systematically develop and apply a range of different procedures, techniques, methods, what-you-will, to the matter of teaching, in this case, listening comprehension, monitoring carefully the effect, and discussing with our students which way seems to work best. There is no need to alter our personal teaching idiom, or the way we interact with our class.

These are the vital elements in such a research programme. First, we should raise our consciousness of our habitual teaching method, noting which techniques we use most frequently, and whether these are drawn from a large or a small repertoire. Next, we should systematically introduce alternative techniques, one by one, in order to discover which suits our personal style, the composition of the class, and results in effective learning. The source of such techniques is the literature on language teaching and the exchange of ideas amongst colleagues. Finally, we should keep case notes in order to track the course of our experimentation and gauge the effect on learning. To adopt a research plan like this would be to follow in the steps of medical science, where the illness is linguistic deficiency, and various remedies have to be tried out.

What, in more precise terms, might such small-scale experimentation consist of? Here are a few examples.

Why not experiment with different ways of introducing an authentic text, printed or recorded? Do different types and degrees of pre-digestion aid the process?

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Why not experiment in oral work to establish first of all how much of the time is spent by the teacher talking and how much by the students? Ways might then be sought to tip this balance as far as possible in favour of the students.

Do we as teachers always ask questions in the same way? Perhaps there are other ways of questioning, more effective, or at least capable of bringing variety to our lessons. Are our ways of developing reading skills as full of variety, and as tailor-made to the new demands of 'A' level as perhaps they might be? Maybe an influx of new ideas, and some careful experimentation could improve our general effectiveness.

One principal difficulty stands in the way of such work as I have proposed. It is the isolation which characterises our professional lives, once the classroom door has closed. Careful preparation, self-monitoring and record-keeping will help to provide a good climate for this work, but the ideal would be to see ourselves as others see us. Joint planning, observation and debriefing might, in part, be a good use of Baker time. Precisely framed invitations to colleagues to observe and describe objectively certain well-defined aspects of our teaching would be even more useful. To learn how to avoid some of the emotional difficulties of mutual observation, see an article by Jean Rudduck and Alan Sigsworth called 'Partnership Supervision (or Goldhammer Revisited)', produced at the School of Education at the University of East Anglia, in 1984.

Literature

Some of the alternative syllabuses for 'A' level, planned or already existing, abolish the study of literature altogether, while others relegate it to a minor role, substituting the study of journalistic texts or a use-of-foreign-language paper. Where the study of literature is retained, it is often in a traditional form with structured questions and commentaries.

I want to argue briefly here for the retention of literary studies as an integral part of foreign language learning in the age range 16-19, and simultaneously for more precision about what it is reasonable to expect students to do with the works they read.

First, it is necessary for students to acquire the necessary linguistic skills to read rapidly. Here, I give full support to the remarks of the Staff Inspector, Michael Salter, who said at the JCLA Conference in 1987:

Reading in the foreign language remains an underestimated skill. Quite apart from any benefits which it brings to other aspects of language learning, it can be a source of pleasure and achievement in itself and remain so throughout adult life. For this to happen, pupils need to acquire rapid reading skills at as early a stage as possible. This can enable them, according to their abilities, to read stories, articles and books in the foreign language at their own rate.

While I would not want to prohibit the great classics for those capable of enjoying them and able to see their relevance to our own times, I would want to give great latitude to what might be considered 'a literary text'. The re-usability

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of the language of modern texts naturally makes them a favourite. I would want to include a single, possibly very short story, as a legitimate object of study. Why should not a film or a radio play or a TV programme count as a literary text, for the purpose of Sixth form study? Personally, I would not even exclude the equivalent of *Mills and Boon* from the initial stages of the programme, provided I could be certain that students' critical reaction to what they read was a true reflection of their level of maturity.

I am puzzled by the increasing preference for journalese or technical language over literary expression. It seems perverse to me to prefer what has been written hurriedly to what has been considered carefully. It seems shortsighted to prefer concerns of the moment to eternal themes. It seems narrow to prefer the sectional interest to basic human experience. Of course, pollution, the position of women in society, unemployment, racism and so on are as much the concern of continental Europeans as they are of ourselves, but Sixth formers risk thinking of little else for two years if the same themes crop up in General Studies and in our own media. The study of literature gives an opportunity to fix one's mind on what is unchanging about our human condition, and to experience that we share our human nature with speakers of other languages. This is what makes literature more interesting than the Press.

Let me illustrate the points about fundamental human concerns and the unifying effect of literature with two brief points which I hope will not seem too fanciful. Some of the topics underlying books sometimes set for study 16-19 are these: the responsibility of the individual for his or her own actions, the dangers of young people marrying too hurriedly in today's society, the longing for individual liberty and its suppression, the generation gap, rebellion against society, man's relationship to his environment, social satire, man's inability to control his nature, the problems of falling in love with someone from a different background, guilt, and so on. Not only are such themes as these of enormous value, when handled sensitively by a skilled writer, in helping young people to mature, they are also the very matters which young people are intimately concerned with in their personal lives.

The study of literature builds bridges to other people. How often do we say: 'Have you seen such-and-such a programme?' The common viewing experience forms a bond. So it is, only more so, with much enjoyed books. The experience of having a book or a film in common with a French or a German speaker helps to form a bond and build a bridge across the cultural gap.

The sharing of experiences indicates an associated reform which I should like to recommend. Much of the difficulty associated with literary study comes from the type of response we have sought from students. Why should we not be content with an ability to discuss a work informally in the manner two intelligent people might discuss a book they had read or a film they had seen in their own language? If we could be precise about the functions of elementary literary criticism, it would help to bring a welcome measure of objectivity into 'A' level examining.

The GCSE syllabus is based on topics, and a list of language functions applied to them. Could we not construct a basic list of the functions of elementary literary criticism? It might include the ability to recount the outline

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of a plot to a sympathetic listener, to say when, where and to whom the main events happened, whether they were in any special historical, geographical or social context. It might be legitimate to require students to say who the principal characters were, what personalities they had, what motives drove them to their actions, how they interacted with other characters, and whether they were different in any way at the end. Do many of us say more than this about what we have read, when speaking in English? For some good ideas, see R Hares (1985).

It will be clear by now that I see literature as having a civilising effect on people who discuss what they have read, and transmit enthusiasm. My final reform would be always to reproduce this in the examination, by having literature the subject of discussion in the oral. (This is already the case with some syllabuses.) Specific topics to be discussed should be made known several days in advance, so that candidates might have time to collect their thoughts, and re-read certain passages. They should be allowed to bring the books into the examination so that they could refer to them in order to make particular points. Credit would be awarded not for memorising details or for producing handed-down literary judgements, but for an ability to discuss a work intelligently in the foreign language.

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PRE-VOCATIONAL AND NON-SPECIALIST LANGUAGE COURSES POST 16

Richard Aplin and Anne Stevens

The past fifteen years have seen something of a revolution in the availability of foreign language courses to the post-sixteen age group. This has been largely in response to the demand from students who did not specialise in foreign languages to be able to continue with their study in some form.

Added impetus for such courses in schools and colleges has come from a growing awareness in industrial and educational circles that the need to have a workforce which has a foreign language proficiency was not being met. The work of Liston and Reeves (1985)¹ gives an exhaustive account of the various attempts to alter this state of affairs, at various levels of the industrial and educational world. The BOTB report (1979)² is the document which has perhaps had the greatest influence in producing action among those who have had sufficient power to have an effect. A series of conferences and seminars has also permitted industrialists and educationalists to meet and discuss their various requirements and situations³, together with the later report 'Communication in the International Business World' (O'Grady & Wilding 1985)⁴. On a local level, and especially where TVEI includes a Modern Languages element, teachers and local employers have jointly worked on devising schemes which have a specifically local relevance. The participation of industrialists at influential gatherings of linguists such as JCLA, and their collaboration in publishing projects (e.g. 'Language Matters' published by AEB)⁵ and the forthcoming 'Working with German'⁶ written jointly by a teacher of German and an industrialist is evidence of a growing awareness in both the language teaching world and within at least some parts of industry that dialogue is essential. The sponsorship by a number of companies of the Festival of Languages and by Lloyds Bank plc of the Foreign Languages at Work scheme has announced to a wider public the determination to take action as well as to talk.

Teachers and organisers have shown remarkable imagination and flexibility in their determination to mount such schemes and a recent survey of the scene indicates the variety of provision available.⁷

However, there are a number of potential problems facing the teacher who wishes to organise such courses, and a clear picture of exactly what is practical and feasible needs to be established prior to any development work.

Typically, there is remarkably little money and extremely limited resourcing available. In addition, staff allocation may be very restricted and timetabling could mean classes being fitted in at the least popular times. All of

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these factors, and also the availability of a foreign language assistant, must be considered.

Despite what seem like major obstacles, courses can be mounted within apparently severe restrictions of resources and time. Careful organisation can solve many of the problems. The demands and format of the courses vary and the particular circumstances in any institution are a major factor in the choice of course. Some of the important factors that should be considered are, in the first place, the existing facilities and resources in the institution. These include all materials, equipment and space, because these can often be adapted for use in such groups, particularly when small numbers of students are involved. The students who are being taught, their ability to learn independently, the demands of other courses of study and facilities for private study must all be considered.

In addition, it is useful to find out what courses other institutions in the area are working on, as collaboration over materials and information sources can save invaluable amounts of time. There may also be some overlap with other new courses in the institution and materials can often be adapted to suit more than one course.

It is vital to establish a team approach from the outset towards such teaching. Some teachers find these courses, particularly if they involve independent learning, very difficult to cope with. A teacher who does not feel at ease with a course will not be an effective teacher and so, perhaps, a more structured approach may be appropriate.

The learning background of the students must not be overlooked. The very different approaches available up to sixteen nowadays means that different groups of pupils will have experienced very different types of courses. It may be necessary to preface such a course with a study skills course in order to ensure effective learning and efficient use of time.

Another problem facing teachers of such groups is the diversity of background among the group members and also the uncertainty of their future plans. This means that pupils may bring various skills to the work and also that the exact length of their period of study may be uncertain. Under such circumstances, it is obviously vital to consider the type of flexibility offered by each of the programmes. Furthermore, the teacher may find that the individual who expresses an interest in such courses is not necessarily the 'able' linguist, but rather someone who sees the skill as an important addition to other qualifications. In this case, linguistic ability is often masked by more traditional forms of assessment. The importance given to each of the four skills varies from one examining body to another and will have a bearing on the type of course selected.

This section, therefore, attempts to present a résumé of the demands and features of the various courses available. These vary greatly in the degree of structure imposed upon the programme of work by the form of assessment or course content, from highly structured to very flexible.

These developments have been much welcomed by the foreign language teacher who has long been aware that many, if not most, of the able linguists abandon their language studies at this stage in favour of other subject areas

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with supposedly better career prospects. Various examination bodies and professional organisations have responded by developing courses and examinations which seek to meet this need.

There is now a plethora of such courses available to teachers and the choice and variety can be bewildering. Add to these the new Advanced Supplementary courses and the additional post-'O' level courses, and the breadth of choice becomes apparent.

What marks out the common ground of the ventures is the clear intention that the content of the course will be of direct use to the students in their employment. There is thus a far more directly instrumental look to the vocabulary and activities in both the teaching and assessment than there is likely to have been in courses which they will have encountered before. This is not to say that the level of language proficiency required is vastly different from their previous experience. Bearing in mind the non-specificity of the vocational bias, it may also encourage those teachers who have been reluctant to move into this field to know that they are not expected to be specialists in the world of commerce in order to be successful teachers of a pre-vocational course.

As there is such a wide variety of pre-vocational foreign language syllabuses now available, it is perhaps surprising that their impact on schools has on the whole been fairly restrained. Where such courses are provided, they usually feature as part of the 16-19 curriculum, and are offered to students who have successfully completed their mainstream foreign language courses to 16, who have perhaps opted to specialise for their main studies in other fields, and who wish to continue and develop their foreign language study with a view to making use of this skill in employment.

Some of the schemes included in this section are characterised by the fact that the title of the qualification and the context of the teaching are clearly geared towards a particular vocational field. However, 'vocational needs' should not solely be seen within this narrowly defined context. There is much evidence to suggest⁸ that many of the priority areas of foreign language learning for those working with the language represent, at least in the initial stages, more general contexts encountered by anyone either travelling abroad or entertaining foreign visitors in the UK.

Although specific contexts within which languages are used are many and varied, there is also a great deal of commonality of use in terms of both skills and contexts. The teacher who wishes to develop language work within a 'pre-vocational' framework should not feel hide-bound by a narrow perspective or contextualisation.

Courses and schemes which are more general in context are therefore often equally valid and useful, particularly at beginners' level. Appendix II contains details of forms of accreditation and courses which could form the basis of such a teaching programme, all of which have been designed with the non-specialist linguist in mind.

What all the courses at all levels have in common is the application of the language within a real-life context. Although one cannot accurately predict future needs in terms of which language or which situation, the experience of

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living the language through real or simulated situations will enhance and facilitate any future language learning that may be undertaken.

It has already been suggested that a large number of syllabuses are available, and that schools have not, for the most part at any rate, made a clear move towards including them as part of their normal curriculum. There are schools certainly which now have long experience of providing pre-vocational languages courses alongside the more traditional fare of the sixth form. It may be that the apparent reluctance of other schools to undertake such ventures is not due to any unwillingness, but to the provenance of the syllabuses. Most of them are provided by bodies that have not been familiar names to the majority of languages teachers; their existence and significance do not really impinge on the consciousness of most teachers.

The foreign language input may be derived from one of two different bases, and this chapter looks at examples of each. In the first, the language consists of a 'bolt-on' extra study carried by the student alongside the main study areas and not necessarily connected with them in terms of context. In the second, the language(s) may form either an option or core study within an integrated course such as TVEI or BTEC. In the latter category there is great scope for an increase in the representation of languages within courses.

Languages in pre-vocational schemes

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT WORK SCHEME

Perhaps the development which has most widely caught the imagination of teachers and students is the FLAW (Foreign Languages at Work) scheme, sponsored by the British Overseas Trade Board and Lloyds Bank plc, and administered by LCCI (London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board). Perhaps the attractiveness of the scheme lies in its flexibility. By Summer 1987, there were over 350 FLAW courses in French, German, Spanish and Italian in more than 200 centres in England and Wales, and abroad. Although it is not surprising that these are the languages which have been most successful in the early years, it should be noted that there is no restriction on languages for FLAW. Course proposals may be submitted for any language.

The major feature of FLAW which provides a special attraction is that the course is provided and designed by the teaching institution. This can be entirely by means of coursework, or the centre may choose to set tests. The freedom for teachers to design courses which can respond to local and individual needs has doubtless been responsible in large measure for the enthusiastic take-up of FLAW.

The general theme of courses which come under the FLAW scheme is that of the world encountered when undertaking transactions with foreign language speaking countries. It is expected that such transactions would be conducted within the world of work, and the settings within which they might occur would include travel to and in the countries of the target language, living in the

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countries and making social contact, and a non-specialist acquaintance with certain aspects of economic life there.

The second aspect of FLAW which has a special attraction is that it can be used to certificate courses for beginners as well as for those continuing beyond a qualification at 16+. Different courses are naturally envisaged for these two groups of students, but the opportunity exists for certifying *ab initio* courses as an additional element of study.

As there is no examination set by the certifying body, the moderation is of the course design and its implementation. Each centre receives visits from a Regional Course Consultant. The course programme is drafted, and discussed with the teacher. It will include the following information: the target group, aims, objectives, methods and activities, materials and resources, assessment.

These will all relate in some way to the profile of performance which is an integral part of the certification for each individual student. On this profile, performance is recorded at five levels in each of three major skill areas (i.e. speaking/interactive skills, listening and reading, writing).

OCSEB ADDITIONAL FRENCH, GERMAN, RUSSIAN, SPANISH 1989 FRENCH, GERMAN, SPANISH FOR BUSINESS STUDIES 1989

Until 1988, these syllabuses existed at GCE Alternative 'O' level, but with the demise of that qualification, they continue from 1989 to be certificated by the Board without the GCE name. The Board will continue to provide the former 'AO' syllabuses in and after 1989. The syllabuses in Russian and Spanish will be available for an initial period of four years and the position will then be reviewed in the light of the number of candidates entered.

The syllabuses will be 'free standing'. Grades (A to E, as at present for 'AO') will be recorded on Board certificates bearing the signatures of the Vice-Chancellors and the Board Secretaries, but without the counter-signature of the DES. The Board has been assured by SCUE that these syllabuses will continue to be recognised for University matriculation and entry into further education, the professions etc, just as they are at present.

The level of performance required in order to benefit from the courses definitely assumes a pass at GCSE level of Grade A, B, or C, or an equivalent qualification. This is a clear indication of its history as an 'AO' syllabus. The nature of the texts and activities to be encountered on what is normally a one-year course would make life very difficult for anyone with a lower entry level. The syllabus is based on practical use of the language in a business context, and the examination tests skills which are perfectly suitable to communicative classroom methodology, given the particular vocational slant of the course. The availability of dictionaries throughout the language papers emphasises the Board's determination that the examination should be of practical ability and not of recall.

The examination consists of an oral test conducted by the teacher, listening, reading and writing tests, as well as a short paper on background studies.

The oral test is divided into three parts. As far as possible, the idea is to simulate a situation which might occur in the course of one's work, as the

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speaker of a foreign language who might be called upon to use language skills in the day-to-day running of a business. Thus the situations which normally develop involve meeting foreign customers, or prospective customers, and dealing with telephone enquiries.

The listening test, read aloud by the teacher, is based on a text adapted from authentic news bulletins, and deals with aspects of socio-economic life, relating to the country of the target language, and which are useful for firms trading with the country to be aware of.

To test the reading ability of the candidates, the paper requires them to summarise in English the contents of a passage of the foreign language, again chosen with a vocational theme in mind.

A commercial letter in the foreign language has to be translated into English, and as the only test of the written language, a reply to it has to be written, using the normal foreign business letter conventions, following instructions about content.

The OCSEB examinations are clearly rigorous and demanding in their scope. That they meet a need is equally clear from the generally enthusiastic response that they have provoked from teachers and students from centres throughout the United Kingdom. About half the centres offer the examination under the Borrowed Papers scheme.

RSA LANGUAGES FOR COMMERCIAL PURPOSES

The Royal Society of Arts has a distinguished history of involvement in examining, and its recently introduced Languages for Commercial Purposes examinations are examples of its development within the field of foreign languages.

The Languages for Commercial purposes scheme, which corresponds to Levels 2 and 3 of the RSA's general communicative Modern Languages examinations, is seen as the preliminary stage of the Board's extensive provision of vocationally based languages qualifications. They are intended for students who wish to enter business or commerce and are particularly aimed at those who are likely to be involved in front-of-house reception and junior secretarial roles. Level 3, more demanding in its requirements, has a target population of those employees in more specialist activities such as hotel receptionists, airport ground staff and others having contact with foreign language speakers.

At Level 2, the emphasis is on receptive skills, with more productive use of language skills required at Level 3. The link with the RSA's main Languages scheme is maintained in the general levels of language demanded at each level (therefore subsuming the requirements for Level 1) with the particular specification that the vocabulary, structures and activities will be directly appropriate to the world of business and commerce.

The areas on which candidates are assessed are divided into: dealing with people, (e.g. greeting, routine enquiries, simple explanations and requests, using tact in awkward circumstances, taking leave); using the telephone and answering machine (e.g. routine enquiries, writing incoming messages in

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English, initiating outgoing calls); handling foreign correspondence - with a dictionary (e.g. an understanding of the contents of routine mail and telexes, of more complex commercial documents of a specific nature, writing (Level 3) in reply to foreign correspondence); social considerations; business and commercial functions (e.g. an understanding of commercial documents, carrying out routine instructions on behalf of a visitor, responding to enquiries about local commercial activity, familiarity with basic elements of commercial practice in the foreign country).

A profile of competence is given to each candidate with grades A to E in each of these areas -

- i) reading and understanding the foreign language;
- ii) understanding the spoken form;
- iii) using the telephone;
- iv) speaking the foreign language;
- v) writing the foreign language (Level 3 only).

Certificates are awarded to candidates who obtain Grade C or better in all activities. (Further details about examinations offered by the RSA are in Appendix II.)

THE INSTITUTE OF LINGUISTS

The Institute of Linguists offers a range of examinations from the Preliminary Certificate up to the Final Diploma. The syllabuses include no literature or literary texts, and give full and useful information on the tests and the way in which they are assessed. The detailed comments given here relate to the Preliminary Certificate and the Grade I Certificate; students and teachers looking for a suitable examination for post 'O' level study might well consider the Grade II Certificate as an alternative to GCE Advanced Level syllabuses (see below).

The Preliminary Certificate, consisting of oral tests, aural comprehension and general knowledge of the country, contains no examination of writing in the foreign language. The oral tests, a conversation and a situational role play, relate to the personal interests of the candidate and to everyday contexts and resourcefulness in making oneself understood; the Institute recognises that the language used at this level is likely to be 'rudimentary and defective'.

The general knowledge test consists of short note-form answers to a number of simple linguistic 'clues' and background knowledge topics of the kind covered by any beginner's course.

The Grade I Certificate contains an oral examination similar to, but more demanding than at Preliminary level and the aural comprehension test includes dictation. Assessment criteria for the oral tasks still give credit to confidence and resourcefulness, demanding a standard of accuracy that would allow a native speaker to 'understand readily'. The written tests at this level include written comprehension, translation into English and a choice of two tests of writing in the foreign language - a letter or short article, and general

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knowledge of the country, a very wide-ranging though generous choice of topics. This Certificate is often regarded as the 'equivalent' of 'O' level and does indeed contain a similar range of language skills and tests, but the language, tests and situations are not literary in style or register, but relate to everyday life and more adult interests than is commonly the case at 'O' level.

At the higher levels, the Institute's Grade II Certificate is widely used in education as a non-literary alternative to 'A' level.

In common with many other examining bodies, the Institute is in the process of developing a new set of examinations which will replace the present ones in 1990.

The new syllabus is not specific to any language and can be applied to the same range of languages as currently offered by the Institute. There will be four levels of examination. The lower two levels, which have been provisionally designated Preliminary and Higher Preliminary level, each consist of a reading, a listening, and an oral test. Candidates must pass all three tests. These examinations are designed for candidates who wish to use their language skills for a variety of social, travel and recreational purposes. These examinations are geared to people who have had formal full- or part-time instruction in the language for 40-50 hours (Preliminary), 130-150 hours (Higher Preliminary) or who have equivalent language-learning experience. Most candidates should be able to perform successfully at these levels without having had experience of living in a country where the target language is spoken, or of using the target language in a work context.

The higher level examinations, whose working titles are Certificate and Diploma, are modular in type, allowing candidates to put together packages in accordance with their interests and needs from the range of modules available. These examinations, while including social and recreational uses of language, focus more on language as a means of communication in a professional or vocational context. Particularly at Diploma level, most candidates would need some experience in living in a country where the language is spoken and/or working with the language outside the classroom.

While it is misleading to make simple comparisons between different examinations, the present equivalence between Institute of Linguists Grade II examinations and 'A' level will be applicable to the new Certificate level.

THE BUSINESS & TECHNICIAN EDUCATION COUNCIL (BTEC)

BTEC has been involved for many years in the design and implementation of language programmes which are integrated with other areas of study in a BTEC programme.

Languages offered within a BTEC programme have, until recently, only been recognised within the framework of a two-year option unit. This ruling has now changed and BTEC recognises that useful language learning is achievable with a single unit.

This means that it is now possible for students to opt for their language study one year at a time or indeed to vary their language study between years

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one and two of a course. This should, in turn, make the staffing of courses easier and also allow for greater diversification within even a small department.

As the purpose of BTEC units is to develop skills in using a language effectively in the workplace, such skills are not necessarily associated with the attainment of any examination grade, and so the entry requirements for any unit cannot be defined in such terms.

In order to help the teacher to determine the best unit for the students, BTEC provides a useful booklet giving guidelines and unit specifications⁹. There are three levels of unit which form the basis of the BTEC foreign language provision. They are available for separate study and for study within, or in relation to, a BTEC course. They are normally available as follows:

Beginners' Unit
Non-Beginners' Unit
Advanced Unit

Each unit may be offered in one or more languages and a student may take the same or different units in different languages.

For students who wish to continue with a language previously studied but who find the next BTEC unit inappropriate, Continuation Units are available. These will normally have the same rationale and objectives as the BTEC-devised unit and will adopt the same general approach to implementation, but in addition will aim to enable students to develop further their skills and confidence in the language by using it in a wider variety of vocationally relevant situations.

In addition, any centre may submit units devised by them for approval by BTEC. The specifications for such units are clearly laid out in the handbook mentioned above.

BTEC have considerably simplified the presentation of these new units and the procedures involved. The handbook contains clear definitions of Principal Objectives, Indicative Content, Skills and Processes, as well as assessment criteria. There are also nine sample learning activities which give sample frameworks within which assignments could be developed.

Copies of the handbook are available from: Publications Despatch Unit, BTEC, Central House, Upper Woburn Place, London WC1H 0HH Tel: 01-388 3288.

Further developments

GCSE

Although GCSE is generally considered to be an examination for the 16+ age group, syllabuses are now being devised with a wider audience in mind.

The GCSE (Mature) syllabuses are intended to be applicable to a wide range of people, and the topics and contexts in the syllabus include for example 'Places of Work' and 'Information Bureaux'. Details of the only syllabus currently available are contained in Appendix II.

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ADVANCED SUPPLEMENTARY (AS) LEVEL EXAMINATIONS

This new examination represents the second major innovation in school examinations, and will enable a good linguist to continue to study a language to Advanced level standard alongside other Advanced level subjects.

The Advanced Supplementary examinations are designed to broaden the studies of Advanced level students. The courses are intended to occupy half the teaching and studying time of an 'A' level. The same general standard of work is expected as for 'A' level. 'AS' level passes will be graded A to E and will be comparable to 'A' level gradings. The syllabuses aim to reflect and develop the objectives of GCSE courses and all stress the importance of authentic materials and the transactional nature of the tests.

They are currently offered by six boards in foreign languages. They are primarily two-year courses, but candidates will be able to take them after one year. However, the first examinations will not be offered until Summer 1989. Boards currently offering foreign languages are: Associated Examining Board (AEB) - French and German; Cambridge, Oxford and Southern Schools Examinations Council (COSSEC) - French, German, Spanish and Russian; Joint Matriculation Board (JMB) - French, German. Spanish from 1989 onwards; University of London School Examinations Board (ULSEB) - French and German, Italian and Spanish from 1990; University of Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations - French and German, Italian and possibly Spanish from 1990; Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC) - French.

The aims outlined by all the boards are essentially the same:

- to maintain and further practical communication skills for study, work and leisure;
- to offer insights into the current events and contemporary society of the country;
- to provide enjoyment and intellectual stimulation;
- to enable students to follow their own interest through the medium of the language.

All the courses aim to contribute to the broadening of the curriculum and to the promotion of a standard of proficiency in the language commensurate with Advanced level and appropriate for the purposes of personal education, vocational education or further study in higher education.

The examinations and procedures vary from one board to another and so it is worth spending time to become familiar with these differences in order to select the course best suited to the teacher and pupils. Details of the examinations, together with contact addresses, are in Appendix II.

In particular, there are differences in emphasis as to the assessment and methods of testing the various skills. The syllabus content is defined and presented differently between boards and, again, familiarisation with these details could facilitate the implementation and ensure maximum use of existing resources.

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FROM SCHOOL TO HIGHER EDUCATION

Gareth Thomas

The range of possibilities confronting the school leaver who is contemplating taking foreign language in further or higher education (HE) is now so vast that he or she would be well advised to undertake a thorough examination of the field before making any choice. All too often choices are made on partial (in both senses of the word) information, following inadequate consultation. When I address groups of Sixth formers on the courses available to them, I never cease to be surprised by the number who have not heard of - let alone consulted - the standard guides on the subject. It is to be hoped that CILT's initiative in producing a careers pack containing comprehensive information on course guides and career destinations of graduates will lead to more informed choices being made.

There are 62 universities and university colleges, 30 polytechnics and hundreds of colleges to choose from, each offering a variety of courses and levels of study. In the past, the university departments have tended to take their pick of 'A' level candidates, leaving the polytechnics and colleges to compete for those remaining. This displays a touching faith, of course, in the value of 'A' level examinations as an indicator of a pupil's linguistic and intellectual capacities at 18+, and the potential of that same pupil for the future. Assessment of performance in the arts and humanities is difficult to achieve with any degree of accuracy: research has shown that in the past the differences between a B and a D at 'A' level might be as little as 3%, which is probably within the margin of discretion of most markers and is susceptible to change, therefore, in either direction. When one adds to this the fact that a number of university departments forgo the formal interview and/or open day as a pre-condition of entry, it is clear that recruitment is a decidedly hit-and-miss operation, leaving the polytechnics and colleges a fair share of highly talented, if on average less highly qualified students.

The British system of HE is currently divided into autonomous institutions (like the universities) on the one hand, and public sector institutions (like the polytechnics and colleges) on the other. The binary system is now considered by some to have outlived its usefulness, and when the dominant group of public sector institutions (i.e. polytechnics and major colleges) are removed from local authority control in 1989, the eventual merging of the two sectors under a common funding council will become a distinct possibility in the longer term. This is not the place to discuss the pros and cons of that argument, but we should not lose sight of the fact that since the late 1960s a revolution has taken place in

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the foreign languages field under the pressure of this binary system. Courses have sprung up offering foreign languages in previously unheard-of combinations, competition for well-qualified students has intensified, and peer review and validation under the aegis of the CNAA have radically altered the way curriculum planning and syllabus design have been approached in polytechnics and colleges.¹ This, in turn, has had a domino effect in the whole of HE: university departments which regarded the teaching of the foreign language as little more than a necessary evil and an adjunct to their central interest - the study of literature - have in many cases revised their view. Headlines such as the one that appeared in the *Times Higher Education Supplement* in the mid-seventies, 'Courses that divorce language from literature are bound to fail', sounded persuasive at the time; today they seem both quaint and defensive. A profusion of courses now exists which has confounded such *ex cathedra* judgements.

This revolution has not been without trauma. As Barry Ife has written, of 34 chairs of Spanish in British universities, 23 are held by scholars who made their reputation in a field of study which antedates the death of Caldéron in 1681.² Not surprisingly, this bias towards medieval or pre-modern studies is reflected in the variety of language studied and the methodologies employed. If philology as a subject has declined, its demise owes more to the fate of Latin in the schools than to a conscious decision by academics:

*'Language' has too often meant keeping one's hand in with a weekly dose of prose and/or translation, the former to provide a stiff intellectual work-out, the latter to develop sensitivity to a certain kind of text, both inevitably emphasising the otherness of the target language by measuring it against English.*³

In the schools, the issue of communicative language teaching has been central to the debate on the future of the subject in the curriculum. Graded objectives and methods of assessment have been devised with a rigour which, irrespective of ideology, is deserving of praise. In HE, starved of research monies, with the majority of practitioners not primarily interested in theoretical problems of second language acquisition, the analysis of objectives has been unsystematic and slow to develop.

Language courses in HE which have come to be regarded as 'progressive' combine the foreign language with a social science-based study of the country concerned, or some other discipline for which the foreign language is an invaluable complement. Derek Winslow identifies the early 1980s as a watershed for such courses and, more particularly, the staff who taught them:

Staff development effort had been concentrated on the acquisition of non-language and non-linguistic qualifications and language teaching has been geared to intensive practice and intensive testing of a wide range of skills. It has not, though, benefited from a thorough investigation of how performance both in the teaching and learning of these skills could be improved. We were

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perhaps judging ourselves against an impression of what had been rather than against a clear vision of what ought to be.⁴

Exciting possibilities exist, with the advent of CALL, interactive video and satellite television, of bringing contemporary language and issues into the classroom and exploiting them to the maximum benefit of the language learner. To the secondary teacher, such media can be properly exploited only by local HE institutions which, they consider, have the time, energy and technical support. To many of us in HE this is to underestimate the resource constraints we face. It is much easier to put the hardware in place than it is to find time to develop the thought processes to enable us to exploit the new technology to best advantage. There are examples that could be quoted of worthy individuals working in the field, but the 'spread effect' of such projects is minimal. Cable television is an object lesson that technological progress in our own age far outpaces intellectual or creative processes on a wider scale. We are, of course, under pressure to use the media imaginatively: what we present to students in a visually unspectacular way may cease to have the impact we intend because it does not stand qualitative comparison with the advertisements or pop videos with which they are familiar. Nor is the OHP a substitute for computer graphics. These are the challenges of the next decade, especially when the students themselves will have come to regard the computer terminal with the same nonchalance as their parents' generation used to view the tape recorder. If such developments are essential to stimulate student motivation, they are equally important for the effective management of HE: staff student ratios of 13:1, which would have been unthinkable five years ago, are now not uncommon.⁵

As fewer one-to-one exchanges become possible in the classroom, other strategies have to be devised for students to develop at their own pace. An increase in self-tuition modes seems inevitable.

Planning in HE in the immediate future seems destined to become more resource-led, with purely academic objectives being subordinated to financial imperatives, including that of the external funding. Student demand is being conditioned more and more by the need to be employable in the market place on graduation. Traditional language departments will have to steer a sensitive course between these beckoning sirens. Moreover, all this is happening at a time when student numbers are declining and the supply of 'A' level students (in German and Spanish particularly) is insufficient in relation to the courses on offer. This prompted the University Grants Committee to recommend in 1987 a reduction from 39 to 28 university departments of Spanish, for example, and a fall in staffing levels from 180 to 160 by the end of the decade. It was proposed to close Hispanic studies at Bath, Hull, Surrey and Warwick, to reduce the six departments in London University to two or three (Kings, Bloomsbury and one other), to reduce the departments in Wales to no more than two (Aberystwyth and Swansea), the departments in Scotland to five (Aberdeen, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Heriot-Watt, St Andrews), and those in Northern Ireland to one (Queen's). Having grasped the nettle of rationalisation, the University Funding Council (and subsequently its polytechnic equivalent) is unlikely to hesitate to do so again if this is deemed to be necessary. While one has to have sympathy for

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the individuals affected, this reorganisation (which would not have taken place without UGC intervention) has undoubtedly strengthened those departments which took on staff redeployed in this way, and will ultimately serve the interests of students enrolling on their courses, who will have access to a wider range of options.

It will be clear from the above comments that I consider many of the changes in the language scene over the past generation to have been positive. In saying this, I am mindful of Petronius's dictum that we tend to meet any new situation by reorganising, which can be a wonderful method of creating the illusion of progress, while in reality producing confusion, inefficiency and demoralisation. An overriding principle, however, must be that courses and syllabuses which do not evolve can rarely be taught with enthusiasm and originality by the same individuals year after year; given the fact that there is little staff mobility, change must be generated internally by a dynamic process of course development.

Central to such course development are the needs of the learner.⁶ As successive publications of the Council of Europe have stressed, not only must adult learners assemble information about themselves to establish what are their resources, what are the objectives they wish to attain, what methods of assessment they prefer, which curricula are best adapted to their needs, but the teaching establishment must also collect information to determine how best to adapt its resources, objectives, methods of assessment and curricula to the requirements and expectations of the learners. Some foreign language departments in HE have been slow to honour their half of the bargain; it is tempting to stay on familiar academic ground rather than break new ground in unfamiliar territory. It is not only tempting, but eminently rational, to claim that one is incompetent to teach a new subject area. Carried to its logical conclusion, however, this leads to immobilism and ignores the changing needs of successive cohorts of students.

Three publications in 1979 which stressed the value of foreign languages in international trade may have served to give added impetus to the development of courses providing practical communicative skills. The surveys argued for more curricular space for foreign languages so that they could be pursued to a higher level;⁷ they pointed to the marked increase in our trade with the EEC and other non-English speaking markets,⁸ and the obvious advantages of speaking the customer's language. The linguistic inadequacy of commercially or technically qualified people in this country by comparison with their Continental counterparts became glaringly obvious. Overseas embassies were critical, in one report,⁹ of the reluctance of British industry even to conduct correspondence in the language of the client, so that orders often went to more enterprising competitors. The education system did not escape criticism in these reports. The introduction to the BETRO Trust report complained that

the teaching of languages in this country was widely criticised by the companies interviewed during the survey. University courses and modern language graduates received the most severe comment. The implication

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seemed to be that firms would employ more linguists if there were more candidates with commercial and technical knowledge.¹⁰

The combined effect of this series of surveys, conducted by reputable organisations, was to call into question the foreign language policies of this country, both in higher education and in industry and commerce.¹¹ In a climate of increasing utilitarianism, course teams are coming under pressure to provide evidence that their graduates are entering careers in which their acquired knowledge and skills are being used to some practical end. Not to be overlooked here is the enhancement of the native language which goes hand in hand with foreign language training. The communicative strategies that have to be devised in order to cope in a second or third language tend to have an immediate transfer value in the native tongue, and presentational skills in a variety of transactions benefit as a result. Many departments in further and higher education have responded to the challenge of combining a broad educational experience with marketable skills, and the technological universities - Aston, Bath, Bradford, Brunel, Heriot-Watt, Loughborough, Salford, Surrey, UMIST - have launched a variety of innovative courses in which the period abroad may well involve working in an industrial or commercial placement.

The influence of polytechnics and technological universities on examinations at 16+ and 18+ has been slow to make itself felt, perhaps owing to the conservatism of a teaching profession which was loath to abandon familiar methodologies, and maybe under the influence of traditional university departments whose syllabuses were predicated on a grammar-based approach to language learning and had as a prerequisite the rudiments, at least, of a literary training. The drive towards authentic and purposeful language of a practical kind at GCSE and the general increase in CDT to meet the demands of industry and the world of employment have created a more appropriate preparation for practical language courses later. The introduction of 'AS' courses - provided they are positively received and taken up by Sixth formers - will be a further step in this direction. It is noticeable that the skills of listening, speaking and reading are now recognised as being far more important at 'AS' level than writing, which has disappeared from the schemes of virtually all the Boards. The implications for HE are considerable: it was already difficult to form viable groups in languages other than French at *ab initio*, post-'O' as well as post-'A'; a further category of 'AS' level students will now have to be catered for, almost certainly within mixed ability groups. The pressure to reduce the weighting of the written language and play to the strengths of this new generation of students will make itself felt in higher education in the 1990s. While these changes are to be welcomed, they are modest. 'A' level literature syllabuses have gradually diversified to allow for a discussion of current affairs and of social issues, but languages for business, for example, have had to develop outside the mainstream of Sixth form courses: FLAW, Royal Society of Arts, Institute of Linguists, Oxford and Cambridge 'AO' French and German for Business Studies. It has largely been left to higher education to satisfy these needs, just as it is increasingly being required to provide *ab initio* courses at this

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level in Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Russian and other less frequently taught languages.

The relative weight given to language *vis-à-vis* other components will vary according to the course. Those courses involving a period of residence abroad usually regard the language component as a major subject, to be weighted accordingly in the assessment. Such courses combined one or two languages with either literary and cultural studies (which may extend from the Middle Ages to the present), or political, social and economic aspects of the foreign country, or a combination of both types. A general trend is for literary courses to diversify: they may introduce film studies and one or more of the social sciences. It is rare to see the reverse occur. The process cannot take place overnight, given the fact that staff mobility is limited and the system is contracting rather than expanding, but the trend is unmistakable.

Apart from these courses, whose title often includes a mention of the language(s) studied, or the term 'modern languages', there are opportunities to read for degrees in a wide variety of subjects combined (but not necessarily integrated) with a foreign language. These might include accountancy, business studies, international relations, law, computing, mathematics, history, librarianship, secretarial studies, engineering or a science. The title of many degrees disguises the fact that they contain a language option, and a careful reading of the course guide is advisable. 'European Studies', 'Combined Studies', 'Modern Studies', 'Modern Arts', 'Modular Studies', 'Business Studies', are all very likely to have a language option on offer.

Conventional wisdom has it that the largest investment we ever make in our lives is buying a house. With the benefit of hindsight, those who have followed a course in HE might well consider this to have been a more crucial investment, since it will have largely determined how they will spend the next forty years of their lives, where they live and work and how much they earn. Given these facts, it is surprising how little students know about the courses they embark on. What percentage of their time will be spent in lectures, seminars and tutorials, and how does the department define these terms? How many students are accepted on the course and how large are the groups? Is the lecturing in English or in the foreign language? What opportunities are there for students to use the language in a purposeful way rather than in the artificial context of a 'lesson'? Are there foreign exchange students or assistants in the department with whom to work or socialise? Is there a placement abroad, and if so by what criteria is it chosen? Is it a work or study placement, and are students visited by a member of staff? Do they write a project? If so, how are they prepared for it, supervised and assessed? What proportion of other coursework, if any, is assessed and how are individual units, semesters or years weighted to give the final result? What integration, if any, is there between the various course components? What are the aims and objectives of the course? What do graduates of the course go on to do? What tutorial or pastoral system exists within the department? What resources are available for listening to top audio materials, watching videos or satellite television, using computer software, and how accessible are these facilities? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the library? Is there informal contact between staff and students on an

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organised basis (e.g. Modern Languages Society, *tertulias*, *Stammtische*, etc)? Are applicants invited to an interview or open day to discuss these issues? Is there an opportunity to speak to students on the course?

So often applicants rely on a hunch - an image of the place and what they have gathered from not wholly reliable sources. Progressive schools and teachers ensure that the exercise is an analytical one, properly conducted; we should all feel a sense of failure when a student makes the wrong choice through lack of information, since the consequences may be disastrous for the person concerned and could so easily have been avoided.

A trend that has become noticeable in my own department recently is for more and more language students to defer entry to higher education for a year and spend the whole or part of that time abroad. On some courses up to 50% of students will have done this - a remarkably high proportion. This is sometimes due to a disappointing 'A' level result for which the student wishes or is required to compensate before embarking on the course; sometimes because he or she simply wants to have a refreshing break from study after a gruelling 'A' level season. The results of intermitting a year at this point are invariably positive. The student returns more mature, more independent, with better spoken language as well as a preparedness to use it, increased sensitivity to the varieties of language - formal and informal - which will be taught during the course, and direct experience against which to measure the material of a contemporary studies lecture programme. The adaptation period in any later placement abroad is also reduced, so that its value is enhanced. The only disadvantages - the loss of the essay writing and, in some cases, the reading habit - are outweighed by the obvious gains; this practice has much to commend it.

A recent report by HMI commends certain methods of language teaching in the Sixth form which provide *opportunities for students to take more responsibility for their own learning and to develop habits of independent study*.¹² This is perhaps the place for a reminder that higher education requires students to organise themselves and develop study skills to a higher level than ever before if they are to cope with the demands made of them. The ability to carry out an effective library search, to read quickly and highly selectively in the foreign language, to take notes in the foreign language and to keep files from which they can retrieve information efficiently - all these skills need nurturing in the Sixth form if they are to be applied in the first year of a course in higher education.

With regard to the future, mention should be made of the likely effects of the European Schemes for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) which received the approval of the European Council of Ministers on 14 May, 1987. Under this scheme a significant sum of money (85 million ECU) was set aside for the exchange of staff and students from the higher education institutions of the member states over a period of three years, leading to the mutual recognition of periods of study accomplished abroad. For the first time in the history of the European movement, a political decision has been taken, and (more importantly) resources have been provided, to create joint programmes of study on a large scale. A key section of the agreement reads:

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The grants (up to a maximum of 5,000 ECU to each student) will support ... travel costs, foreign language preparation as necessary and higher cost of living in the host country. ... Grants will only be awarded in cases where the period of study to be spent in another Member State will be granted full recognition by the student's home university.¹³

This policy decision is bound to act as a stimulus to the further development of higher education courses involving a foreign language. Thousands of students in EEC countries where grants were not freely available will now have access to them. Courses for which foreign language provision seemed a luxury they could not afford (e.g. in science and engineering), they may now find within their reach. This will require a radical reorientation by staff and students in many cases, and it seems certain that the effects will be far-reaching, leading ultimately to a harmonisation of education qualifications across national boundaries. The pioneers in this movement have been those language degrees in the UK which, for almost twenty years now, have recognised a year spent in a foreign institution as an integral part of their programme of study, fees being waived in many cases in a mutual exchange of students. The extension of this principle to a wider spectrum of courses, with generous financial support, is a significant advance. In international business, particularly, the ability to move easily across borders and manage change is a highly prized commodity, and graduates from these courses will be sought after.

If we have concentrated so far on the usefulness of foreign languages, it is because there has been a marked shift of emphasis in this direction in recent years, which seems destined to continue. It is worth reminding any Sixth former contemplating a course in HE, however, that about a third of advertisements for jobs at graduate level omit to specify any discipline, much less the orientation of the course, so that for a significant minority of employers the personality and intellectual quality of the graduate are more important than what he or she may have studied for a degree. Degrees in history or philosophy, for example, do not have direct, practical application for most careers, but are nonetheless a rigorous intellectual training, preparing the mind for a sensitive analysis of human affairs. The traditional language departments in our universities will continue to offer literary courses, and Sixth formers with a love of literature should be encouraged to apply to them. (The corollary is that if a Sixth former has not developed a sensitivity to literature by this time, such a course is probably inappropriate.)

Considering the investment made in the teaching of French in our secondary school system, the returns are perceived to be somewhat meagre. The term 'schoolboy French' has connotations which make the professional linguist wince, and average foreign language competence throughout the adult population is woefully low. At a stage when we are moving into a post-industrial era, with international travel and associated leisure pursuits on the increase, we should be doing more at all levels of our education system, including higher education, to help people enrich their non-working lives. The image of the Englishman (or woman) abroad displaying a combination of superiority and incomprehension is admittedly a caricature, but we have all witnessed it at

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some time or other. Need this state of affairs continue? The non-linguist may well have access in university, polytechnic or college to a language module, or to self-tuition material in a language centre. More could be done, too, at secondary level, particularly at 16-18 among our young scientists, to encourage positive attitudes to education for leisure. After all, in their lifetime the working week is certain to be substantially reduced, and international travel and other forms of communication will dramatically increase. It is essential to teach our business community to bridge the culture gap in order to be successful. But it is also important to combat philistinism in the next generation, and show young people that a foreign language can give as much pleasure as playing a musical instrument, painting or any other hobby. When students move from specialised 'A' level courses to narrow degree courses, often of only three years' duration, they are impoverished by comparison with most of our European neighbours.

There is, as we have seen, considerable scope for expansion of foreign language provision in post-compulsory education. Under the joint pressures of education for work and facilitating the enjoyment of leisure, the language scene in higher education is bound to change at least as much in the last quarter of the century as it did in the third quarter. Mobility of labour within Europe, as indeed of students, has so far been limited. But with the signing of the Single Act, in 1987, European integration became much more of a reality. In the same year, the shock-waves throughout the world of a collapse in share prices emphasised the degree to which the economies of the major trading nations are interdependent. The task of foreign language teachers is to give meaning to this international dimension so that all pupils in the school - linguists and non-linguists - perceive its importance for their careers and their lives in general; but more importantly, they must provide information and guidance on the various possibilities, polytechnics and colleges, so that they can acquire further knowledge and expertise.

References

1. Currently about 2,000 CNA A-approved courses, involving 200,000 students, are offered by the 30 polytechnics and by approximately 100 colleges. Over one third of all degree students in the UK now attend CNA A-approved courses. Under Statute 9 of the CNA A Charter, degrees and other awards conferred by CNA A must be comparable in standards to those conferred by universities.
2. 'Spanish in HE: a university view', *NCML Newsletter* No. 3, Summer 1985, p 14.
3. Ibid.
4. 'Research needs in the public sector', *NCML Newsletter* No. 3, p 6.

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5. White, J E G, in 'Deployment of resources: constraints and opportunities', *Resources for Modern Languages in the Polytechnics*, CILT, 1981, p 26, concedes that at that time staff-student ratios - at 9:1 - were 'not yet right'. They have increased by up to 50% in some departments since that date.
6. See Richterich, R and J L Chancerel, *Identifying the needs of adults learning a foreign language*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1977, for a systematic approach to needs analysis.
7. The Barclays Bank report on Export Development in France, Germany and the United Kingdom, *Factors for international success*, Barclays Bank International Ltd., London, 1979, p 87.
8. Ibid.
9. *Foreign languages for overseas trade*, British Overseas Trade Board, London, May 1979.
10. *Languages and export performance*, BETRO Trust, Royal Society of Arts, London, 1979, *passim*.
11. For a summary of these and similar surveys, see Wilding, C, *Languages, education and industry*, University of Aston, Birmingham, 1980. A more recent treatment of the subject is to be found in Liston, D and N Reeves, *Business studies, languages and overseas trade*, London, 1985.
12. *Modern languages in the Sixth form*, Department of Education and Science, London, 1985, p 25.
13. Council Decision of Adopting the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS), Brussels, 19 May 1987, Action 2 (3a, 3c).

APPENDIX I

Alan Moys

Patterns of change in GCE 'A' level examinations

INTRODUCTION

The information below gives details of recent or proposed changes in 'A' level languages examinations, focusing particularly on those changes which reflect a major reshaping of the rationale of the syllabus and/or the form of the examination. The examinations described are in some cases available as alternatives to existing examinations, while in others they are replacements for existing examinations.

This information does not cover 'AS' level examinations, nor alternatives to GCE 'A' level. Information on these areas is, however, provided in Appendix II and also separately available from CILT.

The information given here is in three sections:

- SECTION A: *Major changes.* In this section are described those examinations which represent a comprehensive re-design, involving most or all of the examinations' papers.
- SECTION B: *Other changes.* Examinations which, while retaining their overall shape, have undergone modification to one or more components.
- SECTION C: *Projected changes.* Information about proposed or possible changes, where no formal announcement has yet been published.

Appendix I

SECTION A: *Major changes*

ASSOCIATED EXAMINING BOARD

French (624)	}	
German (629)	}	
Italian (650)	}	1988 onwards
Spanish (640)	}	

New examinations for these languages will be operated from 1988. The design and form of the examination will be the same across the four languages. These examinations are not alternatives: they will replace the existing examinations.

Paper 1 (45 minutes) 20%
Listening comprehension. Based on material from authentic sources. Questions and answers in English.

Paper 2 (2 hours) 20%
Reading comprehension
1. Translation FL to English (300 words, 10%)
2. Questions and answers in English on a passage in FL (750-800 words, 10%)

(NB Paper 2 of the new syllabus has the same specification as Paper 2 of the previous examination)

Paper 3 (2 hours 30) 20%
Use of the written language
1. Passage in English, non-literary source. Questions in FL to be answered in FL (may include translation of sections, summary).
2. Continuous writing (250 words in FL) as a response to a stimulus text or other material. (10%)

Paper 4 (2 hours 30) 20%
Civilisation, literature, and culture.
Essay in FL (350 words) on each of 2 topics chosen from a prescribed list, on broad contemporary themes.

Paper 5 (15-20 minutes) 20%
Oral. Conducted by a visiting examiner.
1. Discussion on material provided by Board (preparation time allowed)
2. Discussion on topic chosen by candidate from prescribed list of 20.
3. General conversation
(The 3 sections will carry equal marks.)

(This paper has the same specification as the existing oral examination.)

Appendix I

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- (1) Descriptive brochure presenting the new syllabuses in detail, together with list of suitable general reading sources, and detailed reading lists and guidance for Paper 4.
- (2) Specimen papers available.
- (3) A booklet entitled *Principles of Assessment in Modern Languages at Advanced Level* is available. Gives, for all four languages, detailed marking schemes, examples of students' answers to the specimen papers and examiners' commentaries.
- (4) Cassettes available for each language with specimen listening comprehension on one side and examples of oral tests on the other. Accompanying commentary on oral performances.
- (5) List of centres interested in collaborating on the new syllabus available to those entering candidates or considering doing so. All centres requesting this list will themselves be added to it automatically.
- (6) Profile of component grades issued automatically to all candidates.

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

French	}	
German	}	available for first examination 1990
Spanish	}	

These examinations are not alternatives: they will replace the existing examinations.

All students must take

Paper 1 or 2
Paper 3
Paper 4
Paper 5
Paper 6 or 7 or 8

Appendix I

Either

Paper 1 (approx. 20 minutes) 25%

Conducted by an external examiner.

- (a) Sustained Speech - presented by candidates on specified topic of their own choice (guidelines given as to general areas). Supporting material can be used.
- (b) Topic Conversation - about chosen topic. Candidate asked to substantiate, elaborate, clarify etc. issues raised.
- (c) General conversation

Or

Paper 2 (approx. 15 minutes + Continuous Assessment) 25%

Element of Continuous Assessment of oral skills (15%) plus final examination by visiting examiner (10%). 3 out of a battery of 6 tests to be presented for continuous assessment. Final test to resemble Paper 1.

Paper 3 (approx 1 hr) 20%

Listening Tests to be examined in a variety of ways, e.g. gapped test, multiple choice, summary of main points, questions in English, foreign language etc. Two sections, both of contemporary style e.g. news flashes, advertisements, interviews and discussions.

Paper 4 (2 hours 30 minutes) 25%

Total of three passages, two in the foreign language and one in English, in contemporary language; understanding of which will be tested in a variety of ways, e.g. summary, explanation of sections and contexts, comprehension questions in English and foreign language, comparison.

Paper 5 (1 hour 15 minutes) 10%

Essay in Foreign Language; subjects will be set prior to the examination to allow time for preparation and research. Some choice of topics available, though exact titles not given in advance. To be assessed by the Syndicate.

Either

Paper 6 Coursework 20%

Students to submit a file of coursework, containing 4 pieces of work, in the foreign language, totalling approx. 3000 words. Topics (flexible) can include response to literary works, studies or current affairs.

Or

Paper 7 Thematic Studies (3 hours) 20%

Appendix I

3 questions to be answered in the foreign language, relating to the study of prescribed texts grouped by theme. At least 1 text from each theme must be studied, and 1 text can be taken into the examination.

Or

Paper 8 Coursework/Thematic Studies 20%

Either 1 item of coursework in the foreign language and 2 examination questions relating to the study of texts grouped by theme.

Or 2 items of coursework in the foreign language and 1 examination question relating to the study of texts grouped by theme.

Total no. of words in the foreign language for both options = approx. 3000.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Examples of Topic areas for Sustained Speech and exemplar tapes;

Prescribed themes, with 4 texts;

Specimen Papers, specimen coursework assignments available.

JOINT MATRICULATION BOARD

French	}	
German	}	
Spanish	}	available for first examination from 1988
Italian	}	
Russian	}	

The design and form of the examination will be broadly the same across the five languages (some differences in Russian and Spanish oral tests and the number of words required in different languages). These examinations are not alternatives: they will replace the existing examinations.

Paper 1 25%

Either Internal assessment of course work. Three course work essays in FL, totalling approx 2500 words, based on elected reading programme and (optional) work in foreign country. Assessed by the teacher, moderated by Board.

Or Written paper based on prescribed texts (3 hours)

A: Two answers (each 200-250 words in FL) on appropriate (mainly content) aspects of two texts from list of eight (mainly 20th century).

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- B: Two answers (in English or FL) on two texts chosen from a further list of eight (classical period to present day).

Paper 2 (3 hours)

35%

Based on written material. A series of tests/questions arising from two passages of 600-700 words. Range of test-types will vary but will always include:

- a) translation into English of part of text (5%)
- b) translation into FL, 80 words based on text(s) (6.6%)
- c) free composition in FL (300 words) covering range of registers, choice of topics both related and unrelated to text.

Paper 3 (1 hour 30 divided into two 40-minute sessions)

20%

Based on heard material.

Two sessions with an optional break of 10 minutes. Tape-recordings by native speakers. One item of substantial length, and a number of smaller items, in each session. Variety of test-types, e.g. questions and answers in English, summarising, transcription of items, multiple-choice questions.

Oral Examination (approx 15 mins)

20%

Visiting Examiner

- a) Role-playing (2-3 mins, 4%)
- b) Reporting (3 mins, 4%) based on material supplied 15 mins before examination.
- c) Conversation (8-9 minutes, 12%)
 - everyday topics.
 - discussion of 1 of 2 books chosen by candidate.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- a) Descriptive booklet (ref 88b) presenting the new syllabuses and explaining the re-appraisal and extensive consultation which led to their introduction. The syllabuses themselves include an extensive elaboration of the new examination's rationale, its aims and objectives, the language learning activities it seeks to reflect, and the sources and types of material envisaged. For each part of the examination there is a statement of the marking principles to be adopted.
- b) Notes for the guidance of teachers on the assessment of the course work option.
- c) No examiners' reports are available, of course, until after the first examination. Previous examiners' reports from this board have been comprehensive and detailed.
- d) Specimen questions are available for all five languages, including specimen listening comprehension tapes

Appendix I

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS BOARD

French	Syllabus A (A190) may be taken in June and January
German	Syllabus A (A230) may be taken in June and January
Italian	Syllabus A (A330) may be taken in June only
Russian	Syllabus A (A570) may be taken in June only
Spanish	Syllabus A (A590) may be taken in June and January

A substantially revised syllabus has been introduced for first examination in June 1989. The syllabus and scheme of examination is the same across all five languages. See also Syllabus B, page

Candidates take Papers 1, 4, 5, 6 and either Paper 2 or Paper 3.

Paper 1 (approx 45 minutes) 15%
Listening comprehension using shorter and longer recorded extracts from authentic materials in the target language, such as radio announcements, news flashes, current affairs broadcasts, interviews/discussions/conversations; answers in English. 600-700 words. (In French this paper is common with Syllabus B. In French and German this paper is common with 'AS' Paper 1)

Either

Paper 2 (2 hours 30) 25%
Section A - 5 prescribed literary texts, with a choice of 2 questions on each text, either a commentary or a structured question, answers in English.

Section B - 7/10 prescribed literary and non-literary texts, with a choice of essay questions on each text, answers in English.

Candidates must answer 1 question from Section A and 2 questions from Section B.

Or

Paper 3 (2 hours 30) 25%
4/6 contemporary and other topics, with a choice of 2 questions on each topic, either an essay question or a structured question, answers in the target language.
Candidates must answer one question on each of 2 topics (an essay and a structured question). 300 + 300 words.

Paper 4 (2 hours 30) 20%
Q1: Guided writing tasks (including a short translation into target language) based on stimulus material in the target language (also to be written in that language). 250 words.
Q2: Essay in the target language. 250 words.
Candidates must answer both questions.

Appendix I

Paper 5 (2 hours) 20%

Q1: Translation from the target language into English. 200 words.

Q2: Reading comprehension. Questions and answers in English. 500-600 words.

Candidates must answer both questions.

Paper 6 (approx 20 minutes) 20%

Oral, conducted by external examiner; recorded for moderation purposes. A separate oral grade will be awarded. Partly based on a close reading of study extract in the target language concerning contemporary topical issues, and also involving more general conversation.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

1. Complete specimen papers and listening comprehension cassettes are available.
2. Notes for guidance of teachers are included with the syllabus.
3. Detailed information on the assessment principles for each paper are included with the syllabus.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS BOARD

French Syllabus B (A191). Available since 1982, as an alternative to Syllabus A (A 190)

Paper 1 (approx 45 minutes) 15%

Listening comprehension using shorter and longer recorded extracts from authentic materials in the target language such as radio announcements, news flashes, current affairs broadcasts, interviews/discussions/conversations; answers in English. 600-700 words. (In French this paper is common with Syllabus B. In French and German this paper is common with 'AS' Paper 1).

Paper 2 (2 hours) 20%

Essay in French (500 words). Prescribed list of topics, social, economic, political, cultural.

Paper 3 (1 hour 30) 15%

Guided composition (250 words). Language exercise involving, for example, report writing, responding to an article or letter, etc, based on material and/or outline provided.

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Paper 4 (1 hour 30) 15%
Translation English to French (240 words)

Paper 5 (2 hours) 20%

- a) Translation French to English (180 words, 10%)
- b) Reading comprehension. Questions and answers in English (passage of 500-600 words, 10%)

Paper 6 (about 20 minutes) 15%

Oral conducted by external examiner:

- a) Reading aloud of part of material prepared.
- b) Discussion of all material prepared and conversation on general/personal and Paper 1 topics.

All oral tests recorded for moderation purposes. Separate oral grade awarded.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- a) Examiners' Report (about 20 pages). In addition to a substantial amount of detailed information on candidate performance, this report provides informative insights into the criteria and procedures adopted by the examiners in marking the various papers.
- b) Previous question papers available from University of London Publications Office.

UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD DELEGACY OF LOCAL EXAMINATIONS

French (Alternative Syllabus) 9821 } for last examination in 1989
German (Alternative Syllabus) 9823 } (see page 188)

Piloted in 1983, this examination was fully available (French) for the first time in 1984, and for German in 1986.

Paper 1 (1 hour) 12.5%
Listening comprehension (passage of about 500 words, tape-recorded).
Questions and answers in English.

Paper 2 (2 hours) 18.8%
a) Translation FL to English
b) Reading comprehension. Questions and answers in English (length about 500-600 words).

Appendix I

(Papers 1 and 2 are common to both the standard and alternative examinations, 9820 and 9821 French, 9822 and 9823 German.)

Paper 3 (2 hours 30) 18.8%

Use of French/Use of German. A series of (usually 6-8) linguistic tests, such as reformulation, cloze, substitution, definition, including (from 1987) a text-based question.

Paper 4 (3 hours) 25%

a) Guided writing exercise.

b) Essay. (*The essay is common to both the standard and the alternative examinations, 9820 and 9821 French, 9822 and 9823 German.*)

Paper 5 (30-35 minutes) 25%

Oral (visiting examiner)

a) reading aloud

b) conversation based on a passage from one of the books the candidate has read (4 to be studied, chosen from a prescribed list)

c) general conversation on at least 2 further books

d) general conversation.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

a) Information pack, including:

- specimen papers and papers from previous examinations
- detailed examiner's report, including full information about standards of performance on individual papers

b) Information leaflet about marking and assessment procedures in modern languages at Advanced level.

c) Three videos. The introductory video gives information about the syllabus and extracts from specimen French orals; the two training videos, one French, one German, give extracts from specimen orals together with guidance on marking.

UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD DELEGACY OF LOCAL EXAMINATIONS

French }

German }

Italian }

for 1990 - Spanish provisionally planned for 1991

Appendix I

To be available in 1990; will replace all 'A' level Modern Languages syllabuses currently offered by the Delegacy, both traditional and alternative (i.e. 9820, 9821, 9822, 9823, 9826).

In the new syllabus:

- the foreign language is the examination medium used throughout
- a monolingual dictionary will be allowed throughout.

Syllabus outline:

Equal weighting is given to the five areas of reading, writing, listening, speaking and content (although the papers themselves test mixed skills). In some parts of the examination, writing is assessed solely for communication (accuracy is a criterion elsewhere in the examination).

Paper 1 Oral (30-35 minutes) 30%

- a) Communicative task
- b) Presentation of topic
- c) Discussion of topic(s)

Paper 2 Reading (2 hours) 25%

Part 1 - short extracts, with questions testing comprehension

Part 2 - a longer extract, with questions testing use of language

Paper 3 Listening (1 hour) 20%

A range of authentic items, with a variety of question types. Candidates are supplied with individual cassettes which they may play as often as they wish.

Paper 4 Writing (3 hours or coursework) 25%

All options require extended writing in the foreign language:

Option A - 100% coursework (on 2 topics)

Option B - 3-hour written examination (on 2 topics)

Option C - Shortened written examination (on 1 topic) and shortened coursework (on a second topic)

Option D - Shortened written examination (on 1 topic) and Video Viewing Test (of a stimulus/response nature)

Option E - Shortened coursework (on 1 topic) and Video Viewing Test (as above)

NOTE: Options D and E will probably not be offered for Italian.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION:

- a) Resources list
- b) Notes and instructions to Centres wishing to offer coursework
- c) Specimen papers for French and German (Italian in preparation)

Appendix I

To be offered:

- d) Annual conference at Oxford (for current and prospective teachers of the syllabus)
- e) Annual meeting for centres offering coursework
- f) Annual Report on examination
- g) A results profile (by paper) will be available for each candidate.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE SCHOOLS EXAMINATION BOARD

French	}	
German	}	
Russian	}	available from 1990
Spanish	}	

'AS' level papers in Listening, Reading and Speaking are to be used as the core of the 'A' level syllabus, with extension papers in Writing and Literature and Civilisation for 'A' level candidates.

Paper 1 Listening Comprehension (1 hour) 20%
'AS' level core

Candidates will hear a number of recordings in different registers. Questions and answers in English/objective testing (not multiple choice). Monolingual or bilingual dictionaries will be permitted.

Paper 2 Responsive Reading (2 hours 30) 20%
'AS' level core

Candidates will demonstrate their understanding of two texts in contrasting registers. Responses may be required in a variety of forms, by replying to questions in English, by summarising a passage or part of a passage, by listing the main points in a passage, etc. Candidates will also be required to do an unseen translation. Monolingual or bilingual dictionaries will be permitted.

'AS' level candidates will be required to do a short unseen translation (4% only of the total mark) and to write a letter (approximately 150 words) in reply to a stimulus. 'A' level candidates will not be required to attempt the letter in the target language, but will translate into appropriate English the precise content of a contemporary passage in the foreign language.

Paper 3 Oral (30 minutes) 20%
'AS' level core

The oral test will comprise three sections preceded by a very short general conversation.

Appendix I

1. The negotiation of a desired outcome (two situations). Half an hour will be allowed for preparation on the day of the test. Dictionaries will be made available.
2. Discussion of issues of contemporary concern, based on the arts or extracts in the target language. 48 hours will be allowed for preparation.
3. Discussion based on the candidate's own reading or interest in the arts.

Schools will be given the option of either formative or summative assessment of oral performance.

Paper 4 Writing (2 hours 45) 20%
'A' level extension

A choice of two questions out of the following will be given:

- A** Free composition
B Prose composition
C Use of French/German/Russian/Spanish

Paper 5 Literature and Civilisation (2 hours 45) 20%
'A' level extension

Candidates will be expected to answer three questions on literary texts and/or topics. In place of one question candidates may offer a personal study (2000-2500 words) done over a period of time on a topic approved by the Board.

Candidates may answer in the target language.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

A descriptive brochure setting out the aims and objectives of the syllabus with companion specimen papers will be provided, in addition to a tape giving guidance in the conduct and assessment of the oral test and guidelines concerning the personal study option.

* * * * *

WELSH JOINT EDUCATION COMMITTEE

French		Present revised syllabus to be examined for last time 1988. New syllabus from 1989 (see page 193)
German	}	Present revised syllabus (1985/6) to continue, with possible revision in 1990 in line with French.
Spanish		
Italian		
		Available for 1986, to be discontinued after 1988.

Paper A1	(3 hours)	26.7%
a) Translation English to FL (200 words)		
b) Composition in FL (300-350 words)		
(i) argumentative topic		

Appendix I

- (ii) letter-writing
- (iii) story-writing (opening given)

Paper A2 (1 hour 30) 16.75%

- a) (passage of 200 words)
- b) Reading comprehension. Passage of 550-650 words, contemporary journalism. Questions and answers in English/Welsh.

Paper A3 (40 minutes) 13.3%

Listening comprehension. Recorded passage 2-3 minutes, authentic radio source or produced by native speakers.
Questions and answers in English/Welsh.

Paper A4 (15 minutes approx) 18.3%

Oral. Conversation to cover personal interests, studies, and one text from a prescribed list of 6 literary texts by 20th century authors.

OPTIONS: either A5 or A6 below:

Either

Paper A5 (3 hours) 25%

The literature option:

- a) Questions on unprepared passage of poetry or prose: designed to test literary appreciation.
- b) Set texts. Three from a list of 12.

Or

Paper A6 (2 hours 30) 25%

The extended language option:

- a) Translation into English/Welsh of a recorded passage (native speakers) of 100-150 words
- b) Summary in FL (passage of 500 words)
- c) Questions (choice) on two texts from a prescribed list of 6 texts. Questions and answers in FL
- d) Presentation of oral exposé in FL on a topic area chosen from a list of 8 socio-economic topics.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- a) Descriptive brochure including statement of aims, assessment objectives and examination tests.
- b) Specimen papers.

Appendix I

WELSH JOINT EDUCATION COMMITTEE

French

from 1989

A new examination will be examined for the first time in 1989. The examination is not an alternative, but will replace the existing examination which has been available since 1985.

All candidates will be required to sit Papers A1, A2, A3 and A4 and to select one option from Paper A5, A6 or school-based project work.

Paper A1 (2 hours 30)

20%

Reading comprehension. Questions and answers in candidate's mother tongue. To include questions on 2/3 newspaper-type texts (20 marks) and on a longer text (e.g. narrative, interview, informative or argumentative article). Candidates will also be required to translate into English/Welsh selected sentences or sense groups from the texts. (15 marks)

Paper A2 (3 hours)

20%

Written French. Bilingual dictionaries may be used in this paper.

1. Short letter (about 150 words) in French. 3 stimuli will be provided in French (15 marks)
2. Composition (250 words). Choice of 8 topics. (25 marks)
3. Either résumé in French (150 words) of an English/Welsh text (20 marks) or translation into French (120 words) of text of news-report nature (20 marks) or report in French (150 words) using teacher, statistical, diagram or similar information in English/Welsh (20 marks)

Paper A3 (1 hour)

20%

Listening comprehension. Questions and answers in candidate's mother tongue.

1. Questions on up to 4 short informal dialogues (20 marks)
2. Questions on up to 5 short news items (10 marks)
3. Questions on an interview or talk of a more formal nature (30 marks)

Paper A4 (15-20 minutes)

20%

Oral test. Dictionaries may be used during 20 minutes' preparation time for items 2 and 3.

1. Conversation, personal interests etc (20 marks)
2. Short role-play (10 marks)
3. Candidate as interviewer, eliciting response from examiner on one of topics prescribed - prepared at beginning of test (10 marks)
4. Candidate will discuss with examiner 1 issue related to each of 2 prescribed topics, chosen by candidates from a list (20 marks)

Appendix I

In addition to Papers A1-A4 candidates will select **one** of the following options:

Either

Paper A5 (2 hours 30)

20%

Literature.

1. Questions on an extract from one of prescribed texts, extract to be chosen by candidate from choice of three (10 marks)
2. Two essays on other prescribed texts (2 x 15 marks)
3. Teacher-assessed coursework, comprising two best pieces of work of final year (20 marks)

Or

Paper A6 (1 hour 30)

20%

Extended language

1. Two written answers (50-60 words) and one answer (120 words), in French, to questions set in French on 2 texts from prescribed list (20 marks)
2. Oral exposé followed by discussion with external examiner (10 minutes, 20 marks)
3. Teacher-assessed course-work, comprising the two best pieces of work of final year (20 marks)

Or

Paper A7

20%

School-based project work.

Candidates to produce about 1500 words in French on an approved subject during final year. May consist of one extended item or 2/3 shorter pieces.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

1. Descriptive brochure with full statement of aims, assessment objectives, topic areas for Papers A1-A4.
2. Guidance will be provided for teachers on the nature of their role in the supervision of projects, on the nature and scope of suitable topics, and on assessment criteria.

Appendix I

SECTION B: *Other changes*

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS BOARD

French syllabus B (A91) June 1989 onwards.

The listening comprehension paper has been revised with effect from June 1989 and will be based on a number of shorter and longer recorded extracts.

SECTION C: *Projected changes*

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS BOARD

French syllabus B is currently under review. The implications of GCSE and other developments in modern languages are being considered, and the Board envisages the possibility of introducing a revised syllabus for first examination in 1992.

APPENDIX II

Richard Aplin and Anne Stevens

Non-specialist and 'AS' courses

This Appendix contains details of examinations which are designed for the language learner whose mainstream study lies in a field other than language. The structure, level and emphases vary considerably between the different qualifications and allow for a good deal of flexibility in terms of the type of student and level of language they will suit.

ADVANCED SUPPLEMENTARY EXAMINATIONS

ASSOCIATED EXAMINING BOARD

Advanced Supplementary (AS) Level examination

The examination is offered in French and German.

The course is intended as a two-year continuation course for those not specialising in the language but wishing to continue their studies for personal, leisure or vocational reasons. It is intended to develop the receptive skills of listening and reading as well as the student's ability to speak the language.

The content is based around the theme of France and French affairs detailed under the following headings:

- Society and Social Problems
- Family and Everyday Life
- Current Affairs and Politics
- Science and Technology
- Environmental Matters
- Industrial, Commercial and Economic Matters

The assessment is in three parts:

- Listening comprehension 35%
- Reading comprehension 35%
- Oral test 30%

Appendix II

Paper 1 1 hour Listening Comprehension

The test is in two parts. In the first, candidates will listen to a number of short items or extracts and answer open-ended questions in English. Gist or detail will be tested as appropriate. In the second part, a longer discussion or interview will be heard and candidates will answer open-ended questions in English testing comprehension of gist and points of detail.

Paper 2 1 hour 15 minutes Reading Comprehension

The examination is in two parts. In the first, candidates will read six or seven short passages and answer open-ended questions in English on points of gist or detail. In the second, a longer prose passage of about 1000 words will be presented for candidates to answer about ten open-ended questions in English. This passage will be of a more discursive nature.

Paper 3 15 minutes Oral (from 1990, 20 minutes)

The examination is in three parts. In the first, there will be a discussion of material provided by the Board. In the second, a discussion on a topic chosen by the candidate from a list of twenty given by the Board; these topics are the same as those in the 'A' level syllabus for French. The third part comprises general questions set at an appropriate level.

For further details of the syllabus, write to:

AEB (A3), Stag Hill House, Guildford, Surrey GU2 5XJ. Tel: 0483 506506.

JOINT MATRICULATION BOARD

Advanced supplementary (AS-level) syllabus

French, German, Spanish (examined from 1989 onward)

The examination is intended for candidates, including mature candidates, who, having reached the standard of GCSE grade C or above in the language, wish to pursue their studies further. It is expected that most candidates will be Sixth formers studying other Advanced level courses.

The syllabus aims to develop further the ability to use the foreign language effectively for the purposes of practical communication. Candidates will be expected to make themselves clearly understood by a native speaker in a number of situations specified by the Board. It is expected that candidates will be able to understand the foreign language spoken by native speakers in a variety of contexts and to be able to extract relevant information, points of detail or conclusions as appropriate. They will also be expected to read authentic written material in the foreign language reflecting a variety of registers, text types and sources and to extract relevant information or identify important points or themes.

Appendix II

Oral examination approximately 15 minutes

The examination will be held in centres designated by the Board and will be conducted by the Board's examiner. The examination is in three parts, to be conducted in one session. The first part comprises a task of a transactional nature involving the seeking and giving of information. Twenty minutes prior to the start of the examination, the candidate will be given notes in English outlining the role he/she is to play. The second part requires the candidates to perform a task in which they will be expected to use information suggested by written or visual material issued twenty minutes before the start of the examination. In the third part, candidates will be required to participate in general conversation and will themselves choose the initial subject for discussion. Suggested topics are listed in the syllabus to give some guidance as to possible areas for discussion.

Paper 1 1 hour 10 minutes Listening Comprehension

The test is in two parts, each lasting approximately 35 minutes. In each part there will be one item of some length and several shorter pieces. Questions may be in French or in English but answers will not be required in French.

Paper 2

Either Reading Comprehension (2-hour paper)
Or Internal Assessment of Course Work
Reading Comprehension

The paper will consist of short, functional passages and some longer texts. These will be drawn from a variety of sources and may include scientific and technological material designed for the general reader. Questions designed to test the candidate's general and detailed understanding of written French will be set. The use of a dictionary will not be allowed.

Further details of the examination are available from:
JMB, Manchester M15 6EU. Tel: 061 273 2565

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON SCHOOLS EXAMINATION BOARD *Advanced Supplementary (AS) examination*

The 'AS' examination is offered in French and German.

The syllabus has been developed with the general purpose of meeting the need to broaden the studies of Advanced level students by offering them the opportunity to take additional courses in contrasting or complementary subjects, each requiring the same calibre of work as Advanced level but occupying half the teaching and studying time of an Advanced level subject.

Appendix II

The syllabus has built on the experience of the Alternative Ordinary (AO) level French and German examinations. The new examination reflects GCSE developments and, like the revised Advanced level syllabus for 1989, it encompasses a balanced approach to language study and lays stress on the practical use of the language involving authentic, contemporary materials.

Candidates will be expected to be conversant with the language associated with news bulletins, advertisements, current affairs, public announcements, and everyday technology and with the style associated with non-specialised reports and formal correspondence.

The examination is in four parts:

- Paper 1	Listening Comprehension	25%
- Paper 2	Reading Comprehension	25%
- Paper 3	Writing	15%
- Paper 4	Oral	35%

Candidates must take all four papers. In addition to the overall subject grade, candidates will be awarded a subsidiary grade representing performance in Paper 4 (Oral).

The stimulus materials given in the language will be taken from authentic sources and may incorporate visual support. The test forms will, as far as possible, be life-related. No undue burden will be placed on memory. Questions to test comprehension will concentrate on what the listener or reader would naturally infer from a passage, and contexts will be given where appropriate.

Paper 1 Approximately 45 minutes Listening Comprehension

This paper aims to test the candidate's understanding of authentic contemporary spoken language by answering specific questions in English on the recorded material.

This paper will be common with the Advanced level Paper 1.

Paper 2 1 hour Reading Comprehension

This paper aims to test the candidate's ability to identify, explain and/or infer a number of major themes or points by answering specific questions in English on pieces of authentic contemporary written material.

Paper 3 1 hour Writing

This paper aims to test the candidate's ability to write continuously in French or German in order to communicate information in a life-related context.

Appendix II

Paper 4 Approximately 20 minutes Oral

This paper aims to test:

- the candidate's ability to convey information in French or German to a native speaker from data in English in a life-related situation;
- the candidate's ability to elicit prescribed information from a native speaker of French or German;
- the candidate's ability to discuss a prepared topic thoroughly with a native speaker of French or German.

Further details of the examinations are available from:

University of London School Examinations Board, 32 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DN. Tel: 01 636 8000, extension 4586.

UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD DELEGACY OF LOCAL EXAMINATIONS

Advanced Supplementary (AS) level examination

The examination is offered in French and German from 1989, but Italian and possibly Spanish may be offered from 1990. Anyone interested in these languages should contact the examinations secretary at the Board.

Much of the work involved in the course is compatible with the new Advanced level syllabuses which are first scheduled for examination in 1990. The Advanced supplementary examination can be converted to a full 'A' level qualification.

The syllabus is designed to encourage teaching in the target language. Writing is included as part of the normal process of learning.

The course aims to:

- develop written and spoken skills for the purposes of practical communication
- foster an awareness of the cultural, social, economic and political aspects of the country
- offer enjoyment, intellectual stimulation and challenge appropriate to a broad-based education at this level
- instil appropriate study skills, so that the candidate is equipped to pursue further the learning of the language
- allow candidates to complement their studies by pursuing appropriate areas of interest in greater depth.

The examination is in three parts:

Paper 1	Oral	30%
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Appendix II

Paper 2	Reading Comprehension	35%
Paper 3	Listening Comprehension	35%

Paper 1 approximately 20 minutes Oral

This test aims to establish the ability of the candidate to communicate effectively in the spoken language in order to exchange information, ideas and opinions.

The test is in two parts. Part One is a discussion of a written stimulus provided by the Board and given to the candidate fifteen minutes in advance of the test. Part Two comprises a discussion of one or two topics prepared by the candidate during the course and chosen from a list provided by the Board. The test covers areas broadly relating to literary and cultural aspects of the country, as well as to social, technological and commercial topics.

The topics given are intended as a broad guideline and candidates may offer any topic which falls loosely within them.

Candidates may use a monolingual or bilingual dictionary during the preparation of Part One.

Paper 2 2 hours Reading Comprehension

This paper aims to test the ability of the candidate to understand printed and written texts from a variety of different sources designed for the use of native speakers.

The paper is in two parts. Part One comprises a number of items of varying length and Part Two a longer prose passage. A choice of three passages will be offered in Part Two covering areas of scientific, sociological and economic, or literary and cultural interest.

Questions in both parts may be either English-based or foreign-language based and will test either detail or gist as appropriate.

Candidates may use a monolingual or bilingual dictionary in this paper.

Paper 3 approximately one hour Listening Comprehension

This paper aims to test the ability of the candidate to understand language spoken at a normal speed by native speakers. The materials will be drawn from a variety of sources and authentic contexts, including those in which minor variations of accent occur.

Appendix II

The paper, in the form of a tape-recording from the Board, will be in two parts. Part One comprises a number of short, recorded items and Part Two a longer recorded item.

In both parts, instructions and headings will be given in the foreign language. Questions may be either foreign-language based or English-based and will test detail or gist as appropriate.

For further details of the examinations, write to:

University of Oxford Delegacy of Local Examinations, Ewert Place,
Summertown, Oxford OX2 7BZ. Tel: 0865 54291

CAMBRIDGE, OXFORD AND SOUTHERN SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

Advanced Supplementary (AS) level examinations

The examination is offered in French, German, Spanish and Russian.

The syllabus is designed for students who wish to extend further their practical command of the language without making this a major area of 'A' level study.

The examination is in three parts:

Paper 1	Written Examination	20%
Paper 2	Responsive Reading	40%
Paper 3	Oral Test	40%

Material used in examination components will be drawn from a list provided by the Board in the syllabus document. This covers topics of a social, scientific and political nature, together with illustrative issues related to these which the teacher could exploit. The list does not constitute a 'set' of themes.

Candidates will not be expected to have a detailed knowledge, nor will they be required to know specialised or technical vocabulary. The dictionary permitted in various parts of the examination may be either monolingual or bilingual.

Paper 1 1 hour Listening Comprehension

The examination tests the ability of the candidate to understand a number of recordings in different registers of the language either by writing in English or other means of objective testing that will not involve continuous writing in the foreign language.

The use of dictionaries is permitted.

Paper 2 2½ hours Responsive Reading

Appendix II

The paper is in two parts. Part A will be of a transactional nature where candidates will be expected to demonstrate their understanding in English e.g. by replying to questions on a passage, by summarising a passage or by listing main points. Part B will contain a passage in contrasting register for comprehension and/or summary. Responses may be required in a variety of forms in Part A.

The use of dictionaries is permitted.

Paper 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ hour Oral Test

Candidates will be expected to use the spoken language effectively and accurately in discussion and in negotiation.

The test will be in three parts, preceded by a very short general conversation.

The first part comprises the negotiation of a desired outcome. Candidates can choose two situations from three offered which will be of a different nature such as a telephone conversation, resolving a problem, obtaining services, etc.

Half an hour will be allowed for the preparation of the test. Dictionaries may be used and candidates may take notes into the examination room.

The second part comprises a discussion of issues of contemporary concern; 48 hours will be allowed for the preparation of this section. The discussion will be based on extracts provided by the Board. Notes may be taken into the examination room and candidates should be ready to show that they have understood the prepared text and to express their own opinions and discuss the ideas involved. A copy of the prepared extract will be provided in the examination room. Part Three will be based on the candidate's own reading or interest in the arts. Candidates will be expected to have read either one book in the foreign language or a selection of material in the language on a specified theme.

Alternatively, a candidate may elect to discuss one or more films, plays etc. Such a topic must originate in the country or culture of the language.

Centres may decide whether to request an external examiner or to conduct the test internally using their own staff.

The COSSEC Boards are considering ways of introducing assessment of oral proficiency during the course to be offered to schools as an alternative.

Further details about the examinations can be obtained from:

The Examinations Secretary, Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, Elsfield Way, Oxford OX2 8EP. Tel: 0865 54421.

Appendix II

WELSH JOINT EDUCATION COMMITTEE

Advanced Supplementary (AS) level examinations

At the time of going to press, details of this syllabus are not available. Further information may be obtained from the Board: Welsh Joint Education Committee, 245 Western Avenue, Cardiff CF5 2YX. Tel: 0222 561231.

MIDLAND EXAMINING GROUP

French General Certificate of Secondary Education (Mature)

The syllabus is designed to meet the needs and interests of students who are past the age of statutory education. Particular account has been taken of those intending to use the language in travelling, usually as tourists, in French-speaking countries and in meeting their French-speaking counterparts, and of those intending to use French in a vocational context usually with a business or secretarial bias.

The fact that the syllabus is designed with the needs and interests of a particular target group in mind does not imply that entry is necessarily restricted to this group.

The following needs can be identified:

- 1) To give mature students the opportunity of registering, by means of a nationally recognised examination, their level of achievement in French.
- 2) To give mature students the opportunity of developing their linguistic skills particularly in the context of travelling, usually as tourists, in French-speaking countries and of meeting their French-speaking counterparts.
- 3) To give mature students the opportunity of developing their linguistic skill in a vocational context, usually with a business or secretarial bias.

The first need is answered by the general provisions for mature students within the syllabus as a whole. The needs of the last two groups are answered partly by the inclusion of topic options in three of the four skills for the Higher Level parts of the syllabus. If needs of other groups are clearly identified other options may be added.

It is expected that the course of study will normally be of one year's duration, assuming that the students already have some knowledge of the language.

The inclusion of Course Work Assessment, in the two terms leading up to the examination period, enables some of the work to be student-centred and, through the flexibility of periodical assessment, takes account of the wide range of institutions preparing candidates. The possibility of periodical assessment

Appendix II

also helps avoid a heavy load of examinations at the end of the year's study, if the students and teachers so wish.

Although some aspects of the syllabus may appear to resemble the 16+ French GCSE syllabus the Defined Content and specimen papers will show that they are interpreted to meet the needs and interests of mature students.

The topics include a Tourism Option, Commerce and Business, and International European Trade. Further topics may be added in due course in response to proposals from centres.

Grading

The *minimum* number of elements which must be offered to qualify for the award of each of Grades A-G are summarised below. It must be emphasised that in every case the overall level of competence required over the elements listed would be very high and that candidates with realistic prospects of gaining the grade would normally offer a greater number of elements than the minimum requirement.

The minimum number of elements which must be offered to qualify for the award of each of Grades A-G can be summarised as follows:

Grades G, F, E: Basic Listening, Reading, Speaking

Grade D Basic Listening, Reading, Speaking plus either Basic Writing or Part 1 of any two Higher Level elements or Parts 1 and 2 of any one Higher Level element

Grade C Basic Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing plus Part 1 of any two Higher Level elements or Parts 1 and 2 of any one Higher Level element.

Grade B Basic Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing plus Higher Level Writing (Parts 1 and 2) plus One additional Higher Level element (Parts 1 and 2)

Grade A Basic Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing plus Higher Level Writing (Parts 1 and 2) plus Two additional Higher Level elements (Parts 1 and 2)

Scheme of assessment

Elements will be available as follows:

<i>Listening</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Speaking</i>	<i>Writing</i>
BASIC	BASIC	BASIC	BASIC
HIGHER	HIGHER	HIGHER	HIGHER
PART 1	PART 1	PART 1	PART 1
PART 2	PART 2	PART 2	PART 2

Appendix II

All candidates must do Basic Listening, Reading and Speaking and will then choose additional optional elements according to their ability.

These and further details are available in an informative booklet from the Midland Examining Group: Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board (OCSEB), Elsfield Way, Oxford OX2 8EP. Tel: 0865 54421.

At the time of going to print this is the only syllabus available, though it is understood that LEAG is preparing a syllabus document.

OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE SCHOOLS EXAMINATION BOARD

Additional French, German, Russian, Spanish 1989

French, German, Spanish for Business 1989

Oral Test

The paper for the oral test is given to the candidate twenty-four hours in advance, together with the document which forms the basis of a discussion in the third part of the test. It thus enables a considerable amount of preparation time to be exploited, and in this way replicates to some extent the realistic situation in which one works out in advance what one has to say in order to make oneself understood in potentially difficult, and certainly important situations.

The Oral Examination (15 minutes) comprises three tests:

- Giving information
- Getting information
- Discussion based on a brochure, trade pamphlet etc.

In test one the candidate is assessed on:

- Fluency
- Quality of language
- Effectiveness of communication

In test two on:

- Pronunciation and stress
- Effectiveness of communication
- Comprehension

In test three the candidate is required to:

- Read part of the 'document'
- Talk about the document
- Discuss the document

Appendix II

Paper 1 2 ¼ hours (use of dictionaries permitted.)

Listening Comprehension

A passage is read aloud twice, and the candidate reads the questions in English. The candidate may take notes during the reading of the passage. The candidate is given 10 minutes to answer the questions.

The candidate is also required to summarise a passage of approximately 500 words to one third of its original length.

There is a letter to translate from the foreign language and a letter to be written in the foreign language from notes in English.

There is a series of background questions to which short replies are required in English.

Further details of the examination may be obtained from:

Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board, Elsfield Way, Oxford OX2 8EP. Tel: 0865 54421.

Brook House, 10 Trumpington Street, Cambridge, CB2 1QB. Tel: 0223 64326.

LONDON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY EXAMINATIONS BOARD

The London Chamber of Commerce and Industry offers a series of examinations designed to meet the needs of people using their languages in the world of work. They are, therefore, designed with the 'part-time' learner in mind and are very flexible in their approach. This lends them to the needs of the teacher and student operating under the constraints of a minority-time course of study post-sixteen.

The examinations test oral, speaking and listening skills and are offered at four levels: Preliminary, Threshold, Intermediate and Advanced.

The test is administered by a local examiner appointed by the Chamber. The test can take place at any time convenient to the teacher and students and agreed with the examiner.

The tests at all levels involve a series of tasks. At Preliminary level, general conversation is involved around basic topics such as meetings and greetings. At Threshold level the candidate is given some stimulus material and some related listening material and set tasks based on these. At Intermediate level, the candidate listens to a tape and answers questions and is also questioned on two business letters. At Advanced level, there is also a tape with questions but in addition some reading material and also a prepared talk on a specialist topic.

Appendix II

Students are assessed on the basis of their performance during the test and awarded a Pass, Credit or Distinction grade.

A moderately priced booklet giving details of all the examinations is available from:

London Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Examinations Board, Marlowe House, Station Road, Sidcup, Kent DA15 7BJ. Tel: 01-302 0261/4.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AT WORK SCHEME

The scheme was set up in 1982 to meet the needs of the student post-sixteen who wishes to continue studying a language but not in a specialist capacity.

The scheme is available to students with experience of learning the language up to sixteen years of age and who wish to continue to develop their language skills whilst specialising in other fields. In addition, students with successful experience of language learning are able to start a new language under the scheme.

The programme of study can last for between three and five terms but should include no less than 100 minutes per week of course work. For students following an *ab initio* course, this minimum is set at 140 minutes per week.

The course should be built around authentic materials and the use of a variety of contextual material. The areas of language covered should include informative, persuasive, and expressive forms. All four skill areas of reading, writing, speaking and listening can be included but writing is an optional skill.

The actual programme is defined by the centre, in discussion with the course consultant. This should specify the aims, objectives, methods and materials to be used.

The course is assessed on the basis of the competence of the student in each of the principal activities that feature in the course. This should consist of not less than ten activities. The student record will include a skills analysis which is included in the final 'Profile of Performance'.

The skills of listening, speaking and reading are essential ones for the course. Reading is defined as indispensable for reinforcing speaking and listening, on which principal emphasis is laid, and for expanding registers. Writing is optional, and should be envisaged only when the practicalities of a language activity demand it.

There are seventeen activities specified on the profile of performance levels, at least ten of which have to feature in the recorded assessment. They range from using the telephone to reading for detail, from giving a talk to writing letters.

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Within their number is a rich variety of activities which are recognisable aspects of language work and which relate loosely to vocational situations, without being specific to any one area of employment. As the course booklet clearly states, the essential criterion to be applied in assessing a student's performance is that of usability of the transmission or assimilation of information through the language.

There is no end of course examination, but certificates are awarded on the basis of internal assessment, monitored by the course consultant who is nominated by the management committee.

The successful student receives a certificate with London Chamber of Commerce and Industry and British Overseas Trade Board endorsement together with a statement from the course tutor. A detailed profile of performance is also attached which describes the level of attainment in different activities in each of the skills areas.

An informative booklet giving details of the scheme and an application form is available free of charge from the LCCI at the above address.

CERTIFICATE OF ACHIEVEMENT AT AN INTERMEDIATE/ SUPPLEMENTARY LEVEL... UNIVERSITY OF YORK LANGUAGE MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT UNIT

The examination is offered in French and German.

The syllabus, examination and teaching materials are intended for students who wish to continue their study of French or German after the age of sixteen and need a language course to be of practical and general usefulness. They are intended for students who are reasonably proficient in the language but who wish to specialise in other areas.

The syllabus is based on an analysis of how to establish and improve students' communicative base prior to their pursuing academic objectives, and the syllabus has clearly limited objectives.

The syllabus content is in eight parts:

1. Extensive Listening. Students should be able to understand native speakers conversing on a number of topics. The topics embrace a variety of language and subjects. Twelve topics are specified in the syllabus document for each language.
2. Intensive Listening. Students should be able to understand short texts of practical usefulness, such as short announcements.

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3. Extensive Reading. Students should be able to read and understand a number of texts on topics of interest. These cover a variety of style, content and length and ten topics for each language are listed in the syllabus document.
4. Intensive Reading. Students should be able to read and understand short texts of practical usefulness.
5. Written Expression. Students should be able to write certain types of letters on a restricted number of topics. The letters are short (about 200 words) and topics are listed in the syllabus.
6. Using the Telephone. Students should be able to make certain kinds of telephone calls and show their ability to cope with typical telephone tasks. Seven functions are listed.
7. Coping with Problems. Students should be able to cope with a number of problems or difficulties which may be encountered when travelling abroad. The problems that may arise are listed under six headings and twelve areas of linguistic proficiency required by the student within this framework are also detailed.
8. Participation in Discussion. Students should be able to take an active part in discussions with friends and acquaintances when abroad. The general aspects of participation are listed, together with ten discourse strategies which the student will be expected to be able to use.

Further details of the scheme and materials produced to accompany the course are available from;

The Publications Office, Language Materials Development Unit, King's Manor, Exhibition Square, York YO1 2EP. Tel: 0904 27844.

PITMAN EXAMINATIONS INSTITUTE

Examinations are offered at Elementary, Intermediate and Advanced levels in French, German and Spanish. The emphasis of the Examinations is on reading, listening and writing skills, which are tested by means of:

1. Dictation.
2. Reading Comprehension with written answers in the Foreign Language or a summary in English at higher levels.
3. Reading Comprehension with multiple-choice questions.
4. Listening Comprehension with written answers in English or a summary of the passage at higher levels.
5. Composition in the Foreign Language.

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The Pitman Examinations Institute also offers an examination entitled 'Français Langue Etrangère' - French as a Foreign Language, which is written entirely in French and suitable for students of all ages and all abilities. It is available at Levels 1 and 2, each level corresponding to 60 and 120 hours of French teaching respectively. The examination tests candidates' skills in reading with a dictionary and reading without a dictionary, listening, speaking, and writing at Level 2 only using authentic texts and tasks. The examination is profiled and candidates receive a certificate, if a pass is achieved in one or more skills.

The candidate receives a certificate showing a separate grade for reading comprehension, listening comprehension, oral conversation and, in levels two, three and four, for writing.

For details of these examinations write to:

Development Officer for Foreign Languages, Pitman Examinations Institute, Catteshall Manor, Godalming, Surrey GU7 1UU. Tel: 04868 25321.

THE INSTITUTE OF LINGUISTS

The syllabuses of the Institute of Linguists are designed for adults, but as they include no literature or literary texts, they are suitable for those who wish to continue their study of the language but do not wish to devote time to literary texts. A major feature of their examinations is that they include some study of cultural and general knowledge of the country. The depth and demands of this part of the syllabus depend upon the level of the test.

The Institute offers examinations from Preliminary Certificate to Final Diploma. For the post-sixteen student, the most useful levels are probably those of Preliminary, intended for the beginner in the language, Grade 1 Certificate, which could be a suitable follow-on from GCSE, and Grade 2 Certificate, which is considered as an alternative to Advanced level.

The Preliminary Certificate, consisting of oral tests, aural comprehension and general knowledge of the country, contains no examination of writing in the foreign language. The oral tests relate to personal interests of the student and to everyday contexts. Assessment criteria focus on understanding and resourcefulness in making oneself understood. The aural comprehension follows the convention of a spoken text with questions to be answered in English. The general knowledge test consists of short note-form answers to a number of background knowledge topics. These answers are always in English.

The Grade 1 Certificate contains an oral examination comprising a prepared talk, conversation and sight translation into and from the foreign language. There is a listening comprehension test, a translation paper and a test on background knowledge of the country. The candidate is required to write in the foreign language three answers of about two hundred words. There are no

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prescribed texts for this paper, but the candidates are recommended to read as widely as possible in contemporary magazines and newspapers. Resource lists of suggested titles are available from the Institute.

The Grade 2 Certificate is widely used as a non-literary alternative to 'A' level.

The oral test lasts 20 minutes and comprises a prepared talk, a conversation arising from the talk or more general in nature, and sight translation into and from the foreign language. The Listening test comprises a written summary of a passage read by the teacher. There is a translation paper into and from the foreign language and a background-knowledge paper with questions and answers in the foreign language. The Institute provides a list of topics and suggested reading for this paper.

The Intermediate and Final Diplomas correspond to two years' post-'A' level study and Final Honours Degree level respectively. Success in these higher level examinations gives access to Associate Membership and Full Membership of the Institute respectively.

The Institute is in the process of designing new examinations which will replace the present ones in 199

The New Examinations

The new examinations are designed to assess candidates' proficiency at using and understanding language in context. As proficiency examinations they are not concerned with a learner's achievements within a syllabus defined by lists of topics, vocabulary, functions and structures. They are criterion-referenced examinations, and yield an ungraded pass/fail result depending on whether candidates can perform the tasks set.

The new Institute of Linguists tests, at all levels, have the following in common:

- They are **task-based**. Tests are built around tasks which a learner is likely to want to carry out in actual encounters with the foreign language and its speakers or writers. This realistic approach to tasks will also mean that the candidate often has the role of mediator between languages.
- They are **integrated**. Wherever feasible, skills are not tested in isolation. Just as in encounters with the foreign language outside the classroom or the examination, candidates will often need to use a variety of skills, either concurrently or consecutively, to carry out the task briefs.
- They use **authentic materials** for realistic purposes. Not only are the materials used in the examinations drawn as far as is possible from authentic sources, but candidates are required to use the materials in the same ways that they would in their everyday lives.

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- The tests require the candidate to be **creative** in the use of language. As is consistent with the above features of the tests, candidates will be asked to call on their whole language system and range of verbal skills to cope with the examination tasks. They will be required to take the initiative in interaction where appropriate.

Description of the Lower Level Tests

Examination at these levels consists of 3 tests - Reading, Listening, and Oral Interaction. Each test contains a number of separate tasks. There is no separate writing component. A pass requires candidates to perform satisfactorily on each test.

The candidate is allowed to use a dictionary during the Reading and Listening tests, and during the preparation phase of the Oral examination.

The Listening texts are recorded on tape - the candidate listens to the tape on an individual recorder and can rewind as often as is necessary. However, the time for the Listening component is limited, restricting candidates' opportunities for rewinding.

<i>Level</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Listening</i>	<i>Speaking</i>	<i>Total</i>
Preliminary	30 mins	20 mins	10 mins	1 hour
Higher Preliminary	45 mins	30 mins	15 mins	1 hour 30 mins

Description of Higher Level Tests

The Certificate and Diploma level examinations are modular. The syllabus offers a choice of five modules at Certificate and seven at Diploma level. The content of each module is based on particular uses of language with various mixes of skills and different roles for the mother tongue and foreign language in each case. While both levels have a vocational and/or professional orientation in the uses to which language is put, only the Diploma level modules are oriented fully in accordance with analyses of the needs of language users in professional life, such as have been conducted recently by the Institute of Linguists and other organisations. But even here no training in languages for specific purposes is required.

Candidates may enter for one or more modules at a time. They will receive a credit for each module they pass and letters of credit will indicate what type of proficiency the candidate has demonstrated in each instance, in other words,

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what a candidate holding a particular letter of credit can be predicted to do in practice.

Letters of credit can be accumulated and will remain valid for a number of years. In order to obtain the full Certificate or Diploma candidates must have passed three modules of their choice at the respective level in any one language.

Information about both current and future examination syllabuses can be obtained from:

The Examinations Secretary, Institute of Linguists, Mangold House, 24a Highbury Grove, London N5 2EA. Tel: 01-359 7445.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS

The language examinations of the Royal Society of Arts are intended for full-time or part-time students in further or adult education. Each level represents approximately 60-70 hours of study of the language.

The functional approach embraced in the courses and the nature of the assessment make these tests an appropriate form of certification for pupils at this stage who wish to develop practical skills in the language.

The examinations are offered in French, German, Spanish and Italian at four levels. The syllabus covers social conversation, tourist survival, correspondence with friends and transactional correspondence such as at the hotel or travel agency. At Level Four only, the use of the foreign language for general study purposes is included.

Although the skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening are covered, Level One includes no writing in the foreign language and this skill is optional at Level Two. All four skills are included at Levels Three and Four. Dictionaries are permitted for the reading test.

The oral tests cover a range of conversational tasks at each level. Students are asked to initiate and respond to conversation involving a variety of social functions based on a particular situation or some stimulus material. The test is administered with both a teacher/interlocutor and an assessor. The role of the teacher is to facilitate the conversation as far as possible but without involvement in the actual assessment.

The candidate receives a profile of assessment in each of the skill areas. Each skill is graded A to E and a certificate is awarded to those candidates who achieve a minimum grade of C in all the compulsory skill areas.

The RSA issue comprehensive explanatory booklets for each language. These cover all levels and contain detailed specifications together with guidelines for a

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suggested syllabus. The guidelines also contain outline content suggestions as well as analyses of language functions by level.

The RSA also offer other more specialised language examinations which may suit the needs of the post-sixteen student engaged in a vocational course of study. These include: Languages for Business, Certificate for Secretarial Linguists, Diploma in Languages for International Trade, Languages for Commercial Purposes.

For details of these and all the language examinations offered by the Board, write to:

Frances Webster, The Examinations Secretary, R S A Examinations, John Adam Street, London WC2N 6EZ. Tel: 01-930 5115.

BUSINESS AND TECHNICIAN EDUCATION COUNCIL (BTEC)

The method of submission of BTEC Language Units is the same for all levels and courses.

The Council produce a handbook 'Guidance and Unit Specifications' which contains all the necessary information including the framework for provision, the rationale and approach of language units, teaching and learning strategies, assessment strategies and criteria. There is also a selection of Sample Learning Activities to guide the teacher as to the type of approach that should be adopted.

The foreign language study approved by BTEC will generally be based on specifications for single units, based on sixty hours of study at least. The purpose of the units is to develop skills in using a language effectively in the workplace and extending these at work or by further study.

The handbook contains the specifications for the BTEC-devised Beginners, Non-Beginners and Advanced Units. These are presented by skill area (e.g. Reading, Listening, Face to Face and Conveying Information). Each skill is analysed in terms of Principal Objectives, Indicative Content, and Skills and Processes.

In presenting a unit for validation, the centre must outline not only the content but also the teaching/learning strategy, materials to be used, assessment procedures and sample assignments. Further detailed advice on assignments can be found in the BTEC publications:

- *Assignments Help Students to Learn* (1986)
- *Illustrative Material and Advice on Common Skills and Core Themes* (1986)
- *Modern Languages Example Assignments* (published by BEC 1979)

The example assignments contain tasks relevant to business courses and introductory sections relevant to all vocational language teaching.

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BTEC's policy on assessment is outlined in Circular 17 and in the General Guideline 'Assessment & Grading' (1986). This calls for one overall assessment for each unit, graded as Distinction, Merit, Pass, Referred or Fail. This grade must include in-course and end-of-unit assessments. In languages this is most likely to be done through a final major assignment providing balanced coverage of most, if not all, Principal Objectives. The Skills and Processes specified under the Indicative Content for each unit provide some basis for assessment criteria, and further guidance is given in the Sample Learning Activities.

BTEC Courses currently on offer and applicable to students 14-18 are:

- BTEC/City & Guilds Foundation course (14-16)
- CPVE (17+)
- BTEC First Certificate (16+)
- BTEC National Certificate/Diploma (16+)

NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

RICHARD APLIN has been Head of Modern Languages at Henry Box School, Witney, Oxfordshire, an 11-18 comprehensive school, since 1977. He has also taught in Wiltshire, and has been a lecturer in Education at the University College of Swansea. In 1986-87, he was seconded to the University of Oxford Department of Educational Studies to work as a member of a development group planning a new 'internship' scheme of initial teacher education. Apart from teaching full-time in school, his interests include language awareness (he was a member of the NCLE Language Awareness working groups) and teaching materials production (he has published a number of course materials, and has written for BBC School Radio programmes).

ERIC BROWN is a Teacher-Liaison Officer at CILT, where he is the specialist for Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) and organises an annual workshop in Lancaster for CALL practitioners. He edits the report of these workshops and has also edited, and contributed to, *CALL for the computer* (BALT/MLA, 1986). Recently, he was one of the three British members of the Danish, Dutch and British collaborative project, supported by the European Community and set up to investigate the feasibility of international collaboration for the development of educational software for foreign languages.

MALCOLM HOPE is Head of the Languages Faculty at Lord Williams's School, Thame, an 11-18 co-educational comprehensive school in Oxfordshire with some 1900 pupils on roll. During the tenure of his previous post as Head of Languages in a Leicestershire Upper School he was seconded for one year to the research department of the Oxfordshire Certificate of Educational Achievement (OCEA) in Oxford, to work on graded assessment in French. He has over ten years' experience as Assistant Examiner and Moderator for CSE and is a member of the Standing Advisory Committee for languages of the Associated Examining Board.

BARRY JONES is Principal Lecturer and Head of the Modern Languages department at Homerton College, Cambridge, where his main commitment is to the PGCE course and to work with teachers. His recent involvement in the development in the implementation of the GCSE has included writing the national training guide for French and two schoolbooks designed for pupils preparing for this examination. He is a member of the National Committee for Graded Objectives and has been involved in beginning and developing the

Notes on contributors

Cambridgeshire Mode III GCSE as a logical follow-on to the local Graded Objectives scheme. His research interests are in several areas of modern language teaching, especially less able learners, pupil motivation and language awareness. He has published articles and books which have had as their main focus the use of authentic materials for foreign language learning. He has tried to put these ideas into practice in seven schoolbooks.

ANN MILLER is a Senior Lecturer at Westminster College, Oxford: she teaches French language, literature and media studies on the B.Ed. course and methodology of French teaching on the PGCE course. She also runs a language course, taken by all students in the college, which covers child language development, literary and other aspects of language relevant to schooling. In addition, she is involved in in-service work related to communicative language teaching. She was a member of the working party which revised the OMLAC syllabuses in 1982-3. She is joint author, with Richard Aplin and Hugh Starkey, of *Orientalisms*. She spent the summer term in 1987 teaching French and Spanish at Peers School, Oxford, and before moving to Oxford she worked at two comprehensive schools in London.

MARION MOLTENO is a lecturer in adult education in Croydon, responsible for English as a Second Language provision. She teaches regularly on Urdu courses for adults, in London and in Lancashire, and works closely with teachers of sixteen different community languages in Croydon. She has considerable experience of training teachers of languages - including teachers of ESL, foreign and community languages. She is a member of the National Council of Urdu Teaching, and author of *Teaching Britain's community languages* (CILT, 1986), a handbook on methods and materials. She is also the author of *A language in common* (Women's Press, 1987), a collection of short stories based on her experience of friendships formed in the course of her work with Asian women.

ALAN MOYS is Director of CILT. Prior to his joining CILT in 1978, he was a language teacher, teacher trainer and then LEA adviser for Derbyshire. He is particularly interested in methodology and assessment, and was supervising editor of CILT's major study *Modern languages examinations at 16+: a critical analysis*, published in 1980. More recently he has concerned himself particularly with developments in the post-16 examination field.

ANTONY PECK is a Senior Lecturer at the Language Teaching Centre, York University. He directed the German section of the Nuffield/Schools Council Modern Languages Project, and was for twelve years director of the York University Language Materials Development Unit. He is the author of textbooks for GCSE in both French and German. His research interests lie in the field of language teaching methodology and the design of experiments to improve teaching effectiveness. He teaches on one day a week in a local comprehensive school.

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DR DAVID PHILLIPS is a Fellow of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford, University Lecturer in Educational Studies, and Tutor in German at the Department of Educational Studies of the University of Oxford. His research and teaching interests are in two distinct fields: the theory and practice of modern language teaching, and the post-war history of education in Germany, particularly higher education. He is the author of several books and articles in these areas, as well as of school textbooks for the teaching of German. He is General Editor of the *Oxford Review of Education* and is currently directing a research project (OXPROD) on diversification of first foreign language teaching.

LIZ ROSELMAN is an Associate Tutor in Modern Languages at the Department of Educational Studies of Oxford University, dividing her time equally between the Department and Peers School, an Oxford City Upper School. Her research and teaching interests have included work on the Oxfordshire Graded Objectives syllabuses and tests (OMLAC) and her publications include co-authorship of a language awareness book and set of communicative pair task books in French. She is currently working on a new five-stage French course called *Arc-en-Ciel*.

RALPH RUSSELL is Emeritus Reader in Urdu at the School of Oriental and African Studies, University of London, where he taught Urdu from 1950 to 1981. He then took early retirement to give more time to teaching Urdu as a community language - to English speaking adults (teachers, social workers, and others) - and to press for better provision for Urdu teaching in schools. He has written numerous articles and booklets on aspects of community language teaching, and for a number of years was chairperson of the National Council of Urdu Teaching. He is the author of *A new course in Urdu and spoken Hindi* and has assisted in the preparation of many of the new teaching materials being produced for children learning Urdu in Britain. He is widely recognised as a scholar and translator of Urdu literature. With Khurshidul Islam he is co-author of *Three Mughal Poets and Ghalib - Vol. I: life and letters*. They are at present completing *Ghalib - Vol. II Urdu and Persian Ghazals*.

ANNE STEVENS has taught French and Spanish in secondary and further education and has been involved in writing and teaching language programmes for use in industry. She is Teacher Liaison Officer for further and higher education and industry at CILT. Her main interest is in the promotion of language learning for non-specialists and in individualised language training programmes. She designed the original Leeds 'AO' Further French course and is a member of the Languages Panel of BTEC and of the Management Committee of the FLAW scheme administered by the LCCI and the BOTB.

ISABEL DE SUDEA graduated in French and Spanish from Sheffield University and has obtained a Master of Education degree from the Institute of Education in London. She spent five years in Colombia where she was the Dean of the Faculty of Education in a provincial university before returning to teach in the London Borough of Barnet. She was Head of Modern Languages in the

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borough before becoming Deputy Head of Whitefield School. She recently completed a one-year secondment researching developments in vocationally related aspects of modern language teaching. She is currently leading the modern language working party which is developing a course covering the 14-19 age group and is intended for incorporation into the TVE extension programme.

DR GARETH THOMAS is Head of the Department of Modern Languages of Bristol Polytechnic. His research interests lie in the Spanish literature of the Civil War of 1936-39. As Chairman of the Association of Contemporary Iberian Studies (ACIS) he contributes to the organisation of an annual conference on the social, economic and political affairs of the Iberian area. He is closely associated - as its Vice-Chairman - with the work of the Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, having published in 1985 a national survey of the teaching of Spanish in the UK. He is a co-editor of the CILT Information Pack *Languages and careers* and of the *Multilingual business handbook*, published by Pan Books.

This book gives an up-to-date account of some key issues in language teaching and learning in today's schools. It provides an overview of developments in policy and methodology over the past thirty years, describes current theory and practice in such areas as communicative language teaching, computer assisted language learning (CALL), community languages, graded objectives in modern languages (GOML), GCSE, pre-vocational courses (including TVEI, FLAW), 'A' and 'AS' level syllabuses and higher education, and it looks forward to future developments in these and related areas. Its contributors are all linguists with first-hand knowledge of the subjects on which they write.

This addition to CILT's list of publications on important issues in modern languages is aimed equally at the experienced and the trainee teacher, the general reader, the theorist and the policymaker.

Dr David Phillips is lecturer in educational studies and tutor in German at the Department of Educational Studies of the University of Oxford and a Fellow of St Edmund Hall. He has written widely on the theory and the practice of modern language teaching and on comparative and historical topics in education. He is the author of *The second foreign language* (with Veronica Stencel), *Zur Universitätsreform in der Britischen Besatzungszone 1945-48*, and *Zu Zweit: pair-work exercises in German* and is also editor of the *Oxford Review of Education*.

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